DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 141 054 RC 010 000

AUTHOR	Cook, Katherine M.; And Others
TITLE	Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas. Being Chapter V of Volume I of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36. Bulletin, 1937, No. 2 (Advance Pages)
INSTITUTION	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	37
NOTE	74p.; Not available in hard copy due to small print size of original document
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Centralization; Curriculum Development; *Development; *Education; Educational Administration; Educational Trends; Elementary Secondary Education; History; *Organization; *Rural Areas; Rural Urban Differences; Staff Improvement; Standards; *State Aid; *State of the Art Reviews; Teachers; Transportation

ABSTRACT

Presenting narrative and tabular data from a state of the arts orientation, this 1937 U.S. Office of Education bulletin reviews the educational situation in rural and other sparsely populated areas and describes major rural educational developments since 1928. Specifically, this bulletin details the following: (1) the significance of education in sparsely settled communities (number and percent of rural public schools by type; trends in number and percent of children attending various types of public rural schools; teachers in different types of public rural schools; and teachers' salaries and other financial aspects of public rural and urban schools); (2) the state and the rural schools (school support in sparsely settled areas; the state and improvement of instruction via curricular reorganization; general pattern for curriculum construction showing core areas of group culture and subject matter for five trunk lines of curriculum activities; staff improvement trends in the supervision of rural instruction; and standards); (3) organization for local administration and support (present status of local administrative units; recent developments; surveys preliminary to the establishment of local administrative units; local school units project; transportation; and the central rural school district); (4) some newer practices in education outside cities (school buildings; forums in rural communities; and provisions for exceptional children). (JC)

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
HAROLD L. ICKES : SECRETARY
OFFICE OF EDUCATION : J. W. STUDEBAKER
COMMISSIONER

REVIEW OF CONDITIONS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION IN RURAL AND OTHER SPARSELY SETTLED AREAS

BEING CHAPTER V OF VOLUME I OF THE BIENNIAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES : 1934–36

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BULLETIN, 1937, No. 2
[ADVANCE PAGES]

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With the Collaboration of Authors
Whose Names Appear With the Sections
for Which They Are Responsible

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1937

RC010000

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., Price 10 cents

Out of Print

CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	IV
SECTION I. The Significance of Education in Sparsely Settled Communities	1
Introductory statement	1
Types of schools and their enrollments	2
Number and types of schools	2
Number and percent of children attending different types of rural schools	6
Number and percent of teachers employed in various types of rural schools	7
Teachers' salaries and other financial statistics	9
SECTION II. The State and the Rural Schools	10
School support in sparsely settled areas	11
The State and the improvement of instruction	16
Curricular reorganization	16
Improvement of the professional staff	26
Professional preparation of rural elementary teachers	28
Trends in the supervision of instruction	32
SECTION III. Organization for Local Administration and Support	38
SECTION IV. Some Newer Practices in Education Outside of Cities	61
School buildings	61
Forums in rural communities	64
Provisions for exceptional children	66

FOREWORD

This chapter reviews the educational situation in rural and other sparsely settled areas as well as the major developments in education since 1928 when the Office of Education reviewed trends in rural education for the biennium 1927–28,[1] following a series of similar reviews. It is prepared in conformity to the changed policy of the Office of including, in its biennial survey, periodical reviews of certain phases of education covering a period more extended than one biennium, which will be followed in the future.

The author of the chapter wishes to acknowledge indebtedness, first, to the collaborating authors whose names appear in the footnotes or at the beginning of the particular section or subsection for which they are responsible, and, second, to a number of school officials throughout the country interested in education in the communities with which this chapter is concerned who furnished information or offered suggestions.

The collaborators not on its staff to whom the Office of Education is indebted are Julian E. Butterworth, professor of rural education and director of the Graduate School of Education, Cornell University, who is responsible for Section III, Organization for Local Administration and Supervision; William McKinley Robinson, head, department of rural education, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich., for the subsection on Professional Preparation of Rural Elementary Teachers; Helen Hay Heyl, supervisor of rural schools, New York State Department of Education, for the subsection on Trends in the Supervision of Instruction; and W. K. Wilson, supervisor of school building service, New York State Department of Education, who assisted with the subsection on Rural School Buildings.

Of the Office staff cooperating were: W. H. Gaumnitz, who contributed one subsection of Section I, Types of Schools and Their Enrollments; Chester Williams and Elise H. Martens for subsections of Section IV, Forums in Rural Communities and Provisions for Exceptional Children, respectively.

Information concerning developments in their respective States was furnished by a number of State school officials, including Helen Heffernan, of California; Hattie Parrott, of North Carolina; Lois Nemec, of Wisconsin; John M. Foote, of Louisiana; and Robert Baldwin, professor of education, University of West Virginia. The Office of Education is appreciative of the fine cooperation of these and other school officials on whom it so frequently calls for assistance.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ,
Assistant Commissioner.

[1] Biennial Survey of Education, 1926–28, ch. V.

CHAPTER V

REVIEW OF CONDITIONS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION IN RURAL AND OTHER SPARSELY SETTLED AREAS

SECTION I. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EDUCATION IN SPARSELY SETTLED COMMUNITIES

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

The goal of American education is that all children have the fullest possible opportunity for growth and development according to their individual needs and abilities. The large objectives of education do not differ because of location or economic conditions either of the parents of the children concerned or of the communities in which they chance to be reared and attend school. The means by which and to some extent the ways in which the opportunities for growth are extended do, however, differ; sometimes, following accepted principles of differentiation, to enable education to capitalize on the environmental resources and adjust its program to individual and community needs; at others, because educational administrative organization has not yet become adjusted to achieving the difficult task of providing equitability in educational opportunity among widely differentiated social and economic situations.

The definite and inevitable tendency for wealth as well as population to concentrate in urban communities has resulted in bringing to the children of such communities advantages in broadened, often superior facilities in education which less-favored communities have in the past failed largely to offer. While it is an accepted principle that rural children cannot safely be satisfied with less comprehensive educational offerings than are essential for all children, provision for such offerings creates problems far more difficult to surmount in sparsely populated areas than in those of greater population density. A special discussion of education trends in such communities finds its justification in a Nation-wide survey of education largely because of two major considerations—the number of children concerned (slightly less than half the total population of school age), and the rather widespread inadequacy of the educational facilities offered them, judged by accepted or even prevailing standards for schools in the country as a whole.

The last survey of trends in rural education made by the Office of Education was for the biennial period 1927–28. It is the aim of this chapter to review major developments during the period which has elapsed since—approximately 8 years—often, however, a few more or less. It is understood that approximate rather than definite periods are usually necessary when one tries to trace developments in education. Only rarely can one indicate definitely either their initiation or consummation, if reached. No attempt is made to do that in this chapter. When statistical information is given or drawn upon dates usually accompany the discussion. The period covered is not always exactly the same for each of the different topics discussed in the chapter.

An adequate understanding of the educational situation in sparsely settled communities at the present time and of major trends in education which have developed in recent years will, it is believed, be facilitated somewhat if certain important problems concerned are considered, first, in terms of the number of children involved; expenditures for their education; the number and kind of schools they attend; the number of qualified or underqualified teachers concerned with their education; and the like. As a background, therefore, for the discussion of the major trends in education to which this chapter is devoted, certain statistical information with some interpretation of its meaning and significance is considered at the beginning.

The tables which follow and the discussion accompanying them give some idea of the school situation at or about the present time—indicated by statistics for 1934, the latest complete data now available. They include also corresponding data for the years 1926 and 1930 in order that certain trends may be traced through the period indicated.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS AND THEIR ENROLLMENTS[1]

NUMBER AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS

The situation in public education and the general direction in which education is moving in rural and other sparsely settled areas is perhaps best understood—certainly its importance is most fully realized—through a consideration of certain statistical information concerned with the number of children affected, the types of schools they attend, the teachers by whom they are taught, and the like. Certain comparisons as between educational conditions in urban and rural communities as a background for formulation of judgments concerning the situation and other comparisons showing some of the trends of major importance over the period from 1926 to 1934

[1] Prepared by Walter H. Gaumnitz, senior specialist in rural education problems, Office of Education.

when the most recent data available were collected, are presented to elucidate the situation.

Statistical data for the United States represent averages and are prepared from reports from the 48 State systems, each of which has an independent school system differing from any other in important school provisions or situations including support, teacher qualifications, salaries, types of local school systems, number and proportion of small schools maintained, and the like. Where totals are given which stipulate or imply comparisons between schools in urban and rural communities, the basis of separation is that of 2,500 population—that used in the United States census reports. Since this basis of differentiation fails to show certain conditions of importance in small rural communities, especially those concerned with the education of farm children, additional statistics are presented to show conditions in 1-room and 2-room schools. The data were gathered chiefly from State departments of education rather than from individual schools or school systems and estimates have been made in certain instances as indicated in the tabular presentations.

While education is by no means wholly a problem of numbers the fact that rural communities provide a high percentage of the total number of school organizations in the United States and educate within a fraction of 1 percent of half the total number of children is of real significance. The types of schools, whether 1-teacher, 2-teacher, or larger, usually consolidated schools, indicate roughly the quality and breadth of school offerings they provide, according to a number of recent studies which will be referred to later in this chapter. Rural schools still constitute 88.4 percent of the total number, though as table 1 shows, they are decreasing in number and proportion of the total. The reduction is due, as the table shows, to the continuing decrease in the number of 1-teacher schools though such schools still constitute the majority of all schools attended by children in rural communities. During the 8-year period from 1926 to 1934 a reduction in 1-teacher schools totaling nearly 23,000, or 14 percent, has occurred—a reduction which averages close to 8 schools per day throughout the period.

The abandonment of 1-room schools means, of course, that more and more rural children are receiving instruction in larger schools. There have been marked increases during the last 8 years in the number of 2-room rural schools and in the number of "consolidated"[2] rural schools. The former are apparently increasing at a rate of about 500 per year. Texas now has nearly 3,000 2-room schools, Tennessee has nearly 2,000, and practically all the other Southern States have upwards of 1,000 such schools each. In some States, Texas and Tennessee, for example, the rural schools of the 2-room type are

[2] See discussion of term, sec. III, p. 50.

apparently increasing rapidly and represent one step toward larger schools; in others, like North Carolina, 2-room schools as well as 1-room schools are being displaced by larger schools, involving pupil transportation.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES BY TYPES

Types of schools	1926	1930	1934	Increase or decrease, 1926–1930
1	2	3	4	5
Total number of public rural schools [1]	230,863	221,051	213,484	−7.5
Percent of all schools	90.1	89.4	88.4	
1-room schools	161,531	148,711	138,542	−14.2
Percent of rural schools	70.0	67.3	64.9	
2-room schools [2]	20,135	23,290	24,411	+21.2
Percent of rural schools	8.7	10.5	11.4	
Consolidated schools	13,584	15,616	17,248	+27.0
Percent of rural schools	5.9	7.1	8.1	
Schools in rural centers offering high-school work	13,751	16,744	17,627	+28.2
Percent of rural schools	6.0	7.6	8.3	

[1] Buildings, not organizations.
[2] Partially estimated.

Since the term "consolidated school", as explained elsewhere, is used to designate widely differing practices in centralization of schools or school districts, trends can be traced reliably only through data showing the abandonment of the smaller schools together with the increase of the centralized or larger ones.

According to data reported by the States the total number of consolidated rural schools has increased 27 percent during the 8 years from 1926 to 1934. In West Virginia, rural schools of the consolidated type have increased by 675. The very large increase since 1930 is probably due to the shift from the local district to the county unit system of administering schools. More than 1,000 1-room schools have been abandoned during the period. From 1926 to 1930, Texas reported an increase of 618 consolidated schools and a decrease of about 1,000 1-room schools; and from 1930 to 1934 a further reduction of 591 1-room schools but no further increase in consolidated schools. Other States show the following increases in rural consolidated schools during this 8-year period: Pennsylvania, 366; Ohio, 247; Georgia, 238; Tennessee, 196; Arkansas, 183; North Carolina, 137; Virginia, 116; Colorado, 99; New York, 99; Missouri, 97; and Alabama, 93. A number of States like Delaware, Indiana, North Carolina, Louisiana, Maryland, Texas, Ohio, Georgia, West Virginia, and others are consistently replacing small schools with larger centralized ones, while for the country as a whole the decrease in the number of small schools and corresponding increase in larger or consolidated ones, as indicated in the table, is encouraging.

The number of schools located in rural communities which are offering high-school work is also increasing rapidly. There seems to be a close correlation between the growth in the number of consolidations and the number of high schools. This does not mean that every consolidated school provides high-school work or that instruction on the high-school level is obtainable only in these centralized schools. The important point is that secondary education is becoming more and more accessible to rural children. Rural school consolidation and pupil transportation at public expense are major factors in bringing this condition about. Where high schools are not available within either the local or the consolidated school district, legislation providing free tuition and transportation to neighboring high schools, or board and room in lieu of transportation, has in recent years been enacted and existing legislation improved. Where distances are great or road conditions poor, high-school opportunities are more and more often provided through dormitories, boarding-out plans, correspondence lessons, and similar devices. Judged by the proportion of rural children of high-school age now enrolled in secondary schools, considerable progress has been made during the 8-year period in extending education on this level to children in rural communities.

During the 8-year period 1926–34, the number of rural schools offering high-school work increased 28.2 percent. Fully three-fourths of the increase was made between 1926 and 1930 when high schools were established in 3,000 rural communities. From 1930 to 1934 fewer than 1,000 communities established new high schools or high-school departments. Enrollment in rural high schools increased more rapidly, however, during the second 4-year period than during the first (see table 2), leading to the conclusion that the trend during that period was toward fewer and larger schools. Other things being equal, this trend should mean also more and better-qualified teachers per school and consequently improved instruction and enriched curricula.

The effects on the quality of the secondary instruction provided, resulting from the shift from so many extremely small to larger rural high schools, has been suggested but cannot be analyzed at any length here. Suffice it to say that, generally speaking, larger schools mean more teachers per school. Larger teaching staffs mean enriched curricula and balanced teaching loads. They also mean more training for the teachers of special subjects, greater attention to the diversified needs of the children attending, and many other improvements. The progress made in recent years toward larger high schools does not mean that all rural high schools are now of a size which makes a high quality of instruction possible and probable in the sparsely

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settled communities. Even now 1 of every 5 rural high schools enrolls fewer than 50 pupils and nearly half of the total number have fewer than 100 pupils. The teaching staffs serving schools of fewer than 50 pupils probably do not exceed 2 or 3 teachers per school and those of schools with 50 to 100 pupils must be limited to 5 teachers each.

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF CHILDREN ATTENDING DIFFERENT TYPES OF RURAL SCHOOLS

Approximately the same number of children were enrolled in rural schools at the end as at the beginning of the 8-year period under consideration (see table 2). The movement to rural communities caused by the depression reduced enrollment temporarily but by 1934 recovery was almost complete. The decline in the percentage of children enrolled in rural schools is relatively insignificant. It may be due in part to increased attendance in urban public over private schools, and in part to the growing tendency to close the smaller rural schools and to transport the children to larger ones. A few of these larger schools are located in centers of 2,500 or more population, thus slightly decreasing the total school enrollment characterized as rural and increasing that of the cities.

The striking items of information in table 2 are those showing the decreases in elementary-school enrollment and the significant increase—approximately 104 percent—in enrollment in high schools. More nearly universal enrollment of children of secondary-school age in rural communities is a consummation to which those interested in the education of such children have long looked forward. Assuming that increasing numbers of rural children attend high schools in centers of more than 2,500 population owing to the development of transportation facilities, it seems safe to estimate that the proportion of rural children enrolling in high schools is now growing at least twice as fast as that of urban children. Eventually, then, it appears possible to look forward to the time when the respective percentages of rural and urban children enrolled in secondary schools will approach parity.

Probably due to declining birth rates the total enrollment of rural elementary schools decreased by more than a million, 9.4 percent, during the 8-year period. The increase in secondary school enrollment indicated fully offsets the decrease in elementary schools over the 8-year period. These decreases in elementary school enrollments and corresponding increases in secondary school enrollments seem sufficiently large to cause eventually marked differences in the school building needs, in pupil-teacher ratios, in the area needed to provide a school enrollment of a given size, in distances over which pupils

must be transported if the larger schools are to remain filled, and similar important considerations.

The number of rural children attending 1-room schools has decreased 9.9 percent during the 8 years while the number of schools of this type has decreased 14.2 percent, indicating that the 1-room schools abandoned were chiefly those enrolling few children. Enrollment per school in the remaining 1-room schools is consequently larger. Enrollment in 2-room schools increased 18 percent while the number of such schools has increased 21 percent, indicating a probable decrease in the number of pupils per school. The length of the school term has increased in the smaller rural schools by about 10 days during the last 8 years. In the larger rural schools the term has increased but little and in the city schools not at all. Urban schools still offer 1 month more school per year than 1- and 2-room rural schools.

TABLE 2.—TRENDS IN NUMBER AND PERCENT OF CHILDREN ATTENDING VARIOUS TYPES OF PUBLIC RURAL SCHOOLS

Types of schools	1926	1930	1934	Increase or decrease, 1926–30
1	2	3	4	5
Total enrollment of public rural schools	13,027,237	12,887,992	13,024,021	−0.02
Percent of total public-school enrollment	52.7	50.2	49.3	
Enrollment of rural public elementary schools	11,947,231	11,450,261	10,821,777	−9.4
Percent of total rural school enrollment	91.7	88.8	83.1	
Enrollment of rural public high schools [1]	1,080,006	1,437,731	2,202,244	+103.9
Percent of total rural school enrollment	8.3	11.2	16.1	
Percent of children 14–17 years of age attending high school: [2]				
Rural	29.7	39.5	60.5	
Urban	53.6	58.0	67.9	
Enrollment of 1-room schools [2]	3,553,682	3,483,062	3,202,476	−9.9
Percent of rural elementary enrollment	29.9	30.4	29.6	
Enrollment of 2-room schools [2]	1,213,670	1,319,265	1,432,671	+18.0
Percent of rural elementary enrollment [2]	10.2	11.5	13.2	
Average length of school term in days:				
1-room schools	150	162	160	+6.7
2-room schools	151	156	161	+6.7
City schools	183	184	182	−.5

[1] Upper 4 grades.

[2] Partially estimated.

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN VARIOUS TYPES OF RURAL SCHOOLS

Due to the increase in the number of teachers of high-school subjects in rural communities the total number of rural teachers has increased slightly during the 8-year period (table 3). Pupils per teacher are growing fewer in rural elementary schools while the numbers are increasing in the rural high schools. The latter is especially true since 1930.

Before the recent economic depression there were relatively few men in the rural elementary schools. Since 1930 the number has been increasing. Probably when agricultural and industrial con-

ditions are favorable, comparatively few men accept rural elementary teaching positions while seeking them during unfavorable seasons, often on a part-time basis, thus augmenting their income from farming and other occupations.

In the rural high schools the ratio of men teachers to all teachers employed followed the same general trend as in the rural elementary schools but the total number of men increased during both periods. The increase of men teaching in rural high schools has, since 1930, more than doubled that of the previous 4 years.

Due in part to depression conditions and consequent increase in unemployed qualified teachers, in part to certification laws, and in part to the efforts of teacher-education institutions, the last two discussed elsewhere in this bulletin, the educational and professional qualifications of teachers have improved definitely during the past 8 years. Among teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools where unqualified teachers were found in large numbers, as the last two items on table 3 show, significant progress in this direction has been made. In these, as in all rural schools, the goal toward which States have long aspired, namely, a minimum of 2 years of higher education for all teachers, has been reached by nearly half the teachers in the 1-room schools and nearly two-thirds of those in the 2-room schools. Since about two-fifths of all rural teachers are employed in the two types of schools indicated, improvement in their qualifications is of real importance.

TABLE 3.—TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF PUBLIC RURAL SCHOOLS

Types of schools	1926	1930	1934	Increase or decrease, 1926–30
1	2	3	4	5
Total number of teachers	456,915	462,465	461,953	+1.1
Percent of total public-school teachers	57.4	54.9	55.2	
Pupils per teacher	28.3	27.9	28.2	
Elementary teachers [1]	397,567	392,289	383,416	−3.6
Percent of all rural teachers	87.0	84.8	83.0	
Pupils per teacher	30.1	29.2	28.2	
Secondary teachers	59,348	70,176	78,537	+32.3
Percent of all rural teachers	13.0	15.2	17.0	
Pupils per teacher	18.2	20.5	28.0	
Total teachers in 1-room schools	16,531	148,711	138,542	−14.2
Percent of all rural teachers	35.3	32.2	30.0	
Total teachers in 2-room schools [1]	40,270	46,580	48,822	+21.2
Percent of all rural teachers	8.2	10.1	10.6	
Men teaching elementary rural schools [1]	69,955	60,805	64,559	−7.7
Percent of rural elementary teachers	17.6	15.5	16.8	
Men teaching in rural high schools [1]	25,262	28,222	35,117	+39.0
Percent of all rural high-school teachers	42.6	40.2	44.7	
Percent of teachers with high-school education or less:				
1-room schools		45.9	[2] 24.2	
2-room schools		39.5	[2] 17.0	
Percent of teachers with 2 years of normal school education or more:				
1-room schools		23.3	[2] 42.1	
2-room schools		36.4	[2] 60.1	

[1] Partially estimated.

[2] Data for 1935.

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND OTHER FINANCIAL STATISTICS

The trend in teachers' salaries has been steadily downward since 1930, doubtless as a result of depression conditions. Between 1926 and 1930 (table 4) some salary increases, generally inadequate, were reported. Nearly one-half of the teachers in 1-room schools and more than one-third of those in 2-room schools received salaries of less than $500 per year in 1935. Many receive less than $400 per year and an annual wage of $200 is not uncommon. Among the small rural schools for Negroes over one-fourth received an annual salary of less than $200 in 1935.

Teachers employed in the consolidated schools and in the villages and towns have undoubtedly fared better, since if they are included in determining the average salary for all rural teachers the reduction since 1926 is but 8 percent. The average salary of the teachers employed in schools located in centers of more than 2,500 population has been reduced less than 3 percent for the 8-year period.

TABLE 4.—TEACHERS' SALARIES AND OTHER FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS

1	1926	1930	1934	Increase or decrease, 1926–30
	2	3	4	5
Median salaries of 1-room teachers [1]	$761	$788	$517	−32.1
Percent paid less than $500	14.1	9.7	47.1	
Median salaries of 2-room teachers [1]	$754	$829	$620	−17.8
Percent paid less than $500	25.9	18.4	34.2	
Average salaries in rural schools	$855	$979	$787	−8.0
Average salaries in city schools	$1,785	$1,944	$1,735	−2.8
Average current expense per pupil attending:				
Rural	$62.72	$72.01	$53.31	−15.0
Urban	$100.31	$100.95	$92.68	−7.6
Average capital outlay per pupil attending:				
Rural	$12.29	$11.94	$2.74	−77.7
Urban	$29.51	$22.75	$2.55	−91.4
Average value of school property per pupil enrolled:				
Rural	$99.00	$148.14	$151.09	+52.5
Urban	$299.00	$336.36	$347.00	+16.1

[1] Salary data are for 1925, 1930, and 1935.

General expenditures show for the most part the same trends as to teachers' salaries. The average cost per pupil has been reduced approximately twice as much in rural as in urban schools. Capital outlay has practically ceased in both types of communities, except insofar as construction was undertaken in cooperation with the Government's Public Works Program. City schools reduced such outlays more drastically than rural communities, but previous expenditures had been much higher. For the first time in many years annual expenditures for building and equipment are now approximately equal for urban and rural communities. In the total per pupil value of school property the 3 to 1 disparity formerly existing

between urban and rural schools is now sharply reduced, though the value of rural school buildings and equipment is less than half that in urban communities computed on a per pupil basis.

Section II. The State and the Rural Schools

In each of the States citizens as well as school officials are accustomed to look to the chief State school officer and the State department of education over which he presides for leadership in educational progress, for the establishment and maintenance of educational standards, and for the assumption of responsibility for educational activities in general concerned with publicly supported elementary and secondary schools. In rural and other sparsely settled areas such leadership from the State department of education and the efficient functioning of administrative responsibilities assumed by it are of primary importance. The very nature of their situations such as restricted financial resources, relatively limited adult population and correspondingly limited choice in the selection of leaders, civil and educational, relative isolation from important centers of culture, definitely restrict the possibilities for securing locally, high-grade professional leaders and the assurance of modern practices in education which should result from this leadership. In general, such communities look to the chief State school officer for guidance in educational policies, standards, and practices.

Chief State school officers in turn recognize a special responsibility to schools in sparsely settled communities, which extends beyond professional leadership and direction. In the majority of States, more nearly adequate financial resources and more effective school administrative organization, State and local, are basic needs if educational conditions are to be improved and increased educational opportunities made available in small, therefore generally economically handicapped, districts. Chief State school officers and their staffs are, therefore, increasingly assuming considerable responsibility for securing the legislation usually necessary to achieve these ends. In an increasing number of States the chief State school officer has an established prestige and a recognized leadership in educational affairs among State civil officials such as governors and legislators as well as educators which enable the State departments of education to influence materially legislation affecting the interests of schools. Only school legislation approved or sponsored by State school officials receives favorable consideration in many well-organized States.

In all States the State departments of education have well-established relationships, in some States full, in others at least a measure of control over State-supported higher institutions of learning. Par-

ticularly important are its relationships with teacher-education institutions. Cooperation with these higher institutions enables the chief State school officer in many States to enlarge his sphere of service especially among the schools which are most in need of assistance.

While opportunities for the exercise of educational leadership centered in State departments of education vary among States, being necessarily dependent somewhat on the legal provisions of the respective States, on the kind and amount of appropriations available, both for distribution among States and for the employment of the professional staff of the department and on other factors, the chief State school officer and his assistants represent the most significant educational influence among schools in sparsely settled areas in nearly all of them.

During the period under consideration in this chapter the State has assumed a position of increasing importance in education. Particularly has its influence been felt in extending more adequate and more equitable educational opportunities to rural communities within its borders. A brief discussion of the increased influence of the State as a school administrative unit and of State school officials concerned with school support and with the improvement of instruction follows.

SCHOOL SUPPORT IN SPARSELY SETTLED AREAS

During the past decade, especially during the second half of it, from about 1930 to 1936, a widespread movement toward reorganizing State-wide systems of school support has been strongly in evidence. Plans for achieving the desired objectives differ among States. Practically always they include provisions for improving educational opportunities in underprivileged communities and consequently are of special significance in maintaining schools in rural and other sparsely settled areas. Despite differences in methods, certain major trends are apparent. At least four are of special importance in the field of education covered in this chapter. First, the trend toward increasing the share of school support provided from State sources; second, that toward devising and adopting more equitable methods of distributing State funds made available under the newly adopted plans; third, the trend toward relieving general property of an undue burden of taxation; and, fourth, that toward assuring a school program in all districts meeting certain prescribed minimum standards set up by the State.

The causes underlying the need for this rather general movement toward more generous and more equitable school support considered from a State-wide standpoint are of long standing. The multiplicity of small districts locally supported with property taxation as the

chief source of revenue over a period of years has resulted in inadequacy of educational opportunities in many of them. Thoughtful laymen, legislators, and students of education have long realized the inefficiency of the methods of financing schools now in force in many States, especially those for financing schools in small rural communities. The economic depression served to emphasize the seriousness of the situation and in at least some of the States hastened to a culmination of plans previously considered though not materialized for the revision of the prevailing methods and systems of school support. Property taxation which had reached almost prohibitive proportions even before the depression proved wholly inadequate as a source of school support under depression conditions. Something had to be done. The result was that State after State, recognizing the break-down in local support, enacted legislation designed first to increase the State's contribution to the total cost of schools and, second, to secure funds from new or at least other than real property sources of revenue.

Generally accepted principles as well as the prevailing situation contributed toward the realization that the State is a logical source of revenue for school support. All States either in their constitutions or by statutory provision accept in principle that public education is a State responsibility. Nearly all States provide or at one time provided some type of State school funds, in many States a permanent school fund, to which Federal grants of land contributed. Whatever the purpose that animated Federal grants, the original purpose which led States to establish permanent school funds was undoubtedly to enable the State to assume an appreciable share of the responsibility of financing schools, thereby relieving local districts of the full burden of school support. While the accepted theories indicated were never fully realized in practice it was not until about 1890 that the failure of the State to assume an adequate proportion of school support became serious enough to forecast the necessity of a change in practice to a nearer approach in actuality to what had been accepted in theory.

Beginning about 1890 certain trends in financing public education began to raise increasingly serious problems. Throughout the decades immediately following, the percentage of total school support contributed from State sources continuously declined while the proportion of local support increased. At about the same time the cost of maintaining schools began and continued to rise, partly owing to attendance increases and partly owing to enriched school offerings. The change was especially marked from 1890 to 1920 when the percentage of State contribution reached its lowest point and that of local contributions its highest point in the scale representing their respective contributions to total school costs. During the year 1890

State contribution to school support, exclusive of permanent funds and lands, for the country as a whole, averaged 18 percent of the total cost. In 1900 it had fallen to 17.2 percent; in 1910 to 14.9 percent; and in 1920, when the lowest point was reached, it was 13.8 percent.

During these decades the cost of education rose steadily from $17.23 per year per child in 1890 to $64.16 in 1920. Since State contributions are in general fixed in amount, changes are achieved slowly and with difficulty, while local tax-raising possibilities are relatively flexible, the percentage of local contribution inevitably increased as the cost of education increased. In 1890 county and local sources contributed 67.9 percent; in 1900, 68 percent; in 1910, 72.1 percent; in 1920, 78.2 percent to the total cost of maintaining schools. This does not mean that the State contributed less in actual amount of money. It does mean that States as such failed to adjust their financing systems to meet the rising cost of education and consequently contributed increasingly lower percentages of the total cost.

Beginning about 1925 a direct reversal of the conditions indicated above set in. In 1925, State sources contributed 14.1 percent of the total school cost, an increase of 0.3 percent over the contribution of 1920. By 1930, however, the State contribution had reached 15.8 percent of the total; for 1932, it was 18.6 percent; and for 1934, 22.2 percent.[1]

If one compares the number of States which increased the amount actually contributed to school support rather than percentage of the total cost contributed, for the country as a whole as above, substantial progress is apparent, especially during the last 5 years. In 1930, 7 States provided from State-wide sources more than 30 percent of total public-school revenues within their respective borders. By 1932 the number of States contributing as indicated had increased to 17. In 1935, it was 21 and in 1936 the number is estimated at 25 (complete data not available), a total increase of from 7 to 25 States, 1 more than half the total number.

Not all of the States to which reference is made above revised their systems of distributing State funds on a definitely equitable basis at the same time that the amounts of State funds available for school support were increased. Whether or not a State fund is distributed on a basis primarily designed to equalize educational opportunities within the State, if such fund relieves small districts with low tax valuations and correspondingly meager resources from excessive local taxation, it is effective toward improving school conditions and there-

[1] Data from U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1935, No. 2, Statistics of State School Systems, 1933–34, table 1, pp. 46–47.

131650°—37——3

fore has some indirect equalizing influences. However, it is quite generally true that in the States in which the actual contributions to school support from State sources have been increased, efforts toward more equitable methods of distribution than previously prevailed have been adopted.

Methods of distribution differ widely among States. There are, however, distinct and major trends in methods of distribution recently adopted in at least two directions, both of which have equalizing objectives and, to some extent, equalizing tendencies. One method provides enough money from State funds to support a uniform minimum program for a given term in all school systems of the State. North Carolina is an outstanding example of a State which has moved in this direction. North Carolina first provided State funds for a minimum term of 6 months for all schools, then during the depression undertook to provide a minimum term of 8 months. Unfortunately, however, the funds which were made available by the State kept teachers' salaries low and limited other phases of the program, a result aggravated by the fact that at the beginning, at least, voting local supplements was difficult.

A second method requires a fixed local tax rate in every school unit. The amount so raised is then supplemented from State funds to the extent necessary to finance the established minimum program. This method is not new, having been followed for a number of years in several States of which New York is a pioneer. However, there are certain distinct variations in the method. In one variation of the plan no direct attempt is involved to influence or change in any way the organization of local districts. It measures needs as districts are now organized. Another variation of the plan is that followed in West Virginia. Reorganization was consummated eliminating all small districts and establishing the county as the unit. The State provides funds necessary to guarantee a minimum program including a term of 8 months in all counties, which are required to levy a given rate of tax.

There is still a third variation of this method represented by measures recently enacted in Alabama. Alabama undertakes to set up a complete and balanced minimum program including transportation and capital outlay, whereas many of the earlier plans were based directly on teacher units alone and left capital outlay entirely to local initiative. Since the need for transportation in sparsely populated areas is likely to represent a greater proportion of the total cost of the program than in densely populated areas, districts of the former type which attempted to do much in the way of improving the organization of schools were thereby forced to provide an undue proportion of total school costs from local resources. According to the Alabama plan the need for transportation is determined separately from the

need for teacher units and is based on different factors. Likewise, the need for capital outlay is determined separately. After the cost of the complete and balanced minimum program has been determined and the funds available from a uniform local tax levy are ascertained, the State undertakes to provide sufficient funds to assure the complete program in all areas. The State, moreover, fixes requirements to keep the minimum program balanced; for example, no school system may expend funds for capital outlay which are needed for teachers' salaries. When the expenditures for any one phase of the program are increased above the budgeted program, the increase must come from special local tax effort.

A provision of equal importance in the reorganization of school support and one considered in the plans adopted by practically all States which have achieved financial reorganization since 1930 is concerned with the sources from which State funds, in addition to income from permanent funds and lands, are to be derived. In recent revisions of systems of school support there has been a marked movement toward the elimination of real property as a source of securing the desired increase in income. States can collect taxes from various sources of revenue utilization of which, if enforced by local units, would involve cumbersome machinery—an income tax, for example—and many States have availed themselves of this advantage. A few States have eliminated the property tax entirely as a State source of revenue for schools leaving that source for local taxation purposes. Among these States are California, Delaware, North Carolina, Oregon, and Pennsylvania. In other States the percentage of total school costs provided from property taxation has been substantially reduced. Reductions in property taxes are of particular significance in rural communities since excessive taxation works a special hardship on farmers. Wealth centers in cities to a large degree within States and when the State assumes an increasing percentage of school support, drawing its money from sources other than property taxation, schools in rural communities benefit thereby. The trend toward newer sources of revenue for school support, collected on a State-wide basis, is of special significance, therefore, in equalizing opportunities as well as tax burdens in States with large rural populations. Among sources of revenue adopted by States, proceeds from which in whole or in part go to school support, are the following: Individual or corporation income taxes; general or special sales tax; severance, inheritance, corporation taxes; tobacco or motor fuel tax.

In a number of States funds are appropriated also for stimulating approved school practices. The New York plan is an example. New York has provided liberally from State funds during the period under consideration to stimulate centralization of districts and in

most cases centralization of schools also. An account of this movement is given later in this chapter. In a number of States the cost of local supervision of rural schools is paid in large part from State funds. While this type of stimulation began before the period here discussed it has been extended during recent years. Virginia and California are examples of State stimulation of local school supervision. During recent years the number of supervisors and the number of schools supervised have increased substantially. Instructional supervision is practically State-wide in both States.

On the whole, trends during the period have been in the direction of assuming a larger percentage of school support on the part of States; toward equalizing educational opportunities within States by providing financial assistance, particularly to the less able districts; and toward stimulating good practices, especially in the administration of schools. Stimulation funds naturally presuppose at least some regulation and supervision of expenditures and, therefore, results in an opportunity for increased leadership and for promotion of improved standards in school programs on the part of State officials.

THE STATE AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

It is apparent that important as are leadership and direction offered by the State in administrative aspects of education, it is in the influence of its officials on the improvement of instruction in the schools of rural communities that the heart of the education problem is attacked. Relative isolation, lack of professional administration and supervision, and in too many rural communities lack of trained and experienced teachers, render this service of special importance. Cities on the whole provide such advantages locally and are, therefore, far less dependent on the State than rural schools for definite instructional guidance. Among the means used by which the State as such influences the quality of instruction offered in rural schools through its chief State school officer and his staff and its higher institutions of learning, four in which significant progress has been made recently are discussed here. Through State courses of study or curricular revision programs, through regulations governing teacher certification, through the preparation of teachers, and through instructional supervision, State officials in different ways and in varying degrees among States set standards for the quality of instruction offered and guide local schools in maintaining them.

CURRICULAR REORGANIZATION

All States issue State courses of study. While they are intended to be and are used on a State-wide basis, local courses or adaptations of State courses for local purposes are generally prepared and used

in urban school systems. Rural schools, on the other hand, with but few exceptions, depend almost entirely on State courses. In the elementary schools, especially in that large proportion of counties where professional supervision is not furnished or furnished only in exceptional districts, State courses are the chief if not the only guide the teachers have in instructional practices as well as in formulating the school program. In the secondary schools the influence of State courses is probably equally important, although they are more apt to have the professional guidance of trained principals than the small elementary school and the advantage of three or more teachers for discussion and consultation. The fact that in 42 States the State department of education is responsible for accrediting high schools implies that it has a wide influence on the curriculum.

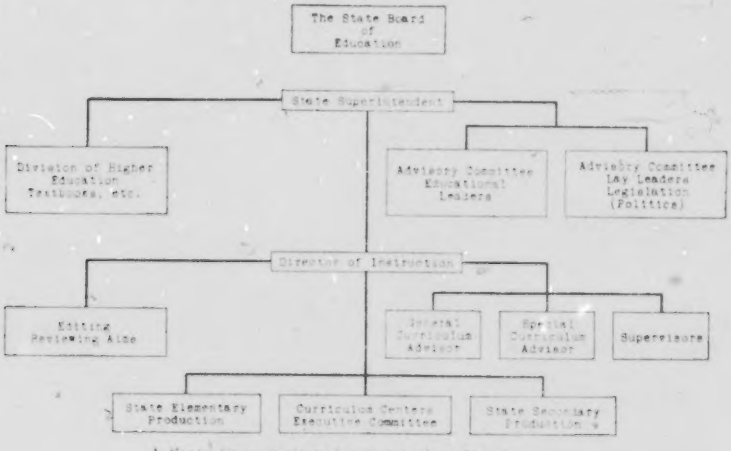
The past decade has been notable for emphasis on curricular adjustments and the issuance of new or revised State courses of study. An unusual interest in curriculum development on a Nation-wide scale began about 1925. More than 30,000 State courses of study are said to have been collected during the decade between 1925 and 1935 in one curriculum laboratory alone. In 1934, 15 States were reported as actively engaged in the construction of new courses of study while continuing revisions of curricular programs were under way in 31 States.[4]

An examination of State courses of study published between 1930 and 1935 indicates some striking changes in points of view concerning curriculum construction, in the purposes which State courses of study are expected to serve, in the principles underlying their preparation, and in the selection of content material and suggested classroom procedures. We have apparently outgrown almost if not completely the need for State courses of study which present merely or chiefly outlines of textbook material prepared by a few selected individuals, usually specialists in subject matter, and which are accompanied by directions concerned chiefly with the amount of subject matter to be covered in a given time, indicated by topics or chapters or sections of the adopted textbooks. While ways in which recent State courses of study are prepared, the organization of material followed or suggested, and the like, differ widely among States, certain definite trends are apparent.

The changed point of view in the process of curriculum construction is manifested specifically first by the growing tendency to consider the State course of study as an outcome rather than the sole objective of a planned effort on the part of a wide representation of school officials, usually characterized as a curricular program. Whether the process is a long-time one of working through such a

[4] Texas. State Department of Education. Handbook for Curriculum Study. Austin, Tex., Bulletin No. 336.

"curricular program" or the more immediate one with the definite objective of formulating a course of study, it is a general—almost universal—practice to set forth and discuss at some length the purposes to be served by the program or the course of study, as the case may be. This first step is apparently intended to insure complete understanding of the principles and practices that are to be followed. In a number of States these purposes, with the plan of procedure set up, are published in some preliminary, possibly mimeographed, form or in the form of a special bulletin or handbook, the Handbook for Curriculum Development [5] issued in Texas, for example.



A State Organization for Curriculum Development.

Naturally a number of purposes are stated or implied in the different courses, particularly in those States in which a long-time program is under way. The significant thing, however, is that practically without exception one major purpose is that of improving instruction—"the improvement of the professional outlook of teachers", as one course of study states it.

Other purposes, such as "the unification of school programs" and "increasing knowledge and interest on the part of citizens", are mentioned frequently also. The Virginia State course of study [6] enumerates three objectives of the State curriculum revision program: (1) To produce the best course of study for the children of the State; (2) professional stimulation and growth on the part of teachers through participation in the program; (3) an "increased

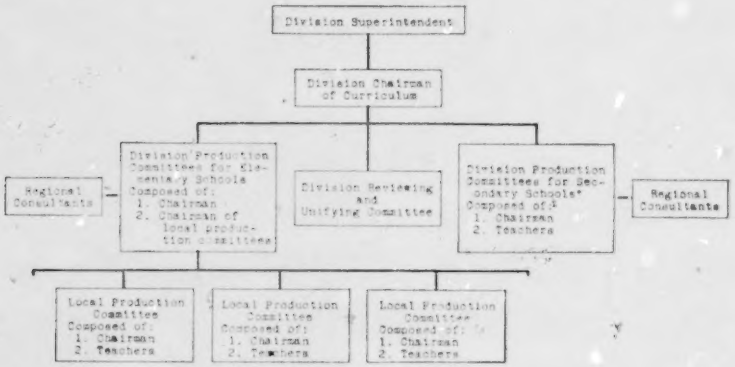
[5] Texas. State Department of Education. Handbook for Curriculum Development. Austin, Tex., February 1936.

[6] Virginia. State Board of Education. Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII. Richmond, Division of Purchase and Printing, 1934.

interest and knowledge on the part of citizens in problems of present-day education to the end that fuller cooperation through wider understanding will result in consummation of the aims of education.

The purposes of the curriculum program in Texas[7] are stated as follows:

(a) Development and installation of courses of study; (b) unification of various school programs; (c) improvement of professional outlook of teachers; (d) development of a basis for a continuous program of curriculum making; (e) increasing interest on the part of citizens.


Division Superintendent
Division Chairman of Curriculum
Regional Consultants
Division Production Committees for Elementary Schools Composed of: 1. Chairman 2. Chairman of local production committees
Division Reviewing and Unifying Committee
Division Production Committees for Secondary Schools* Composed of: 1. Chairman 2. Teachers
Regional Consultants
Local Production Committee Composed of: 1. Chairman 2. Teachers
Local Production Committee Composed of: 1. Chairman 2. Teachers
Local Production Committee Composed of: 1. Chairman 2. Teachers
*Includes grades in junior and senior high schools.

A Suggested Organization for Curriculum Work in Counties and Cities in Virginia (Organization for Virginia State Curriculum Program, Bulletin, State Board of Education, March 1932, p. 13).

Arrangements concerned with practically all programs center round the achievements of this very generally expressed major purpose of curricular programs or State courses of study, namely, the improvement of instruction. Among such arrangements are those made for State-wide participation on the part of school officials and teachers representing all types of schools, as well as laymen. In at least four States in which curriculum construction is or has recently been under way—Georgia, Virginia, Arkansas, and Texas—the desirability of lay participation is emphasized and committees of laymen are invited to participate.

Long-time programs necessarily accompany provision for State-wide participation. Arkansas, Virginia, and Texas are examples of States in which the program was planned or extended to cover a period of from 3 to 6 years. Where long-time programs are provided, special objectives for each year are usually set up by the planning committee. The first year in a number of such States was devoted to

[7] Texas. State Department of Education. Tentative Course of Study for Years One Through Six. Austin, Tex., Bulletin No. 359, May 1936.

"orientation." During this year teachers were organized into sectional, county, or other types of local groups to work under direction of committees with a chairman in charge usually appointed by the central office. The purpose of these committees was that of organizing and directing teachers throughout the State for the study of principles underlying curriculum making, objectives to be achieved thereby, desirable procedures, and the like. The different State teacher-education institutions provided curriculum laboratories where groups of teachers under direction of faculty members or of curriculum advisers or consultants, sometimes employed by the State to direct the whole program, worked on curricular units or sections. These institutions also offered extension and summer courses in curriculum-making in which teachers enrolled in large numbers. Several States, including Virginia, Arkansas, Georgia, and Texas, reported a high percentage of the total number of teachers employed in the respective States as availing themselves of such opportunities during the orientation year.

Wide participation on the part of teachers is provided for in the Texas program. It is described in the Handbook for Curriculum Development for 1936 as follows:

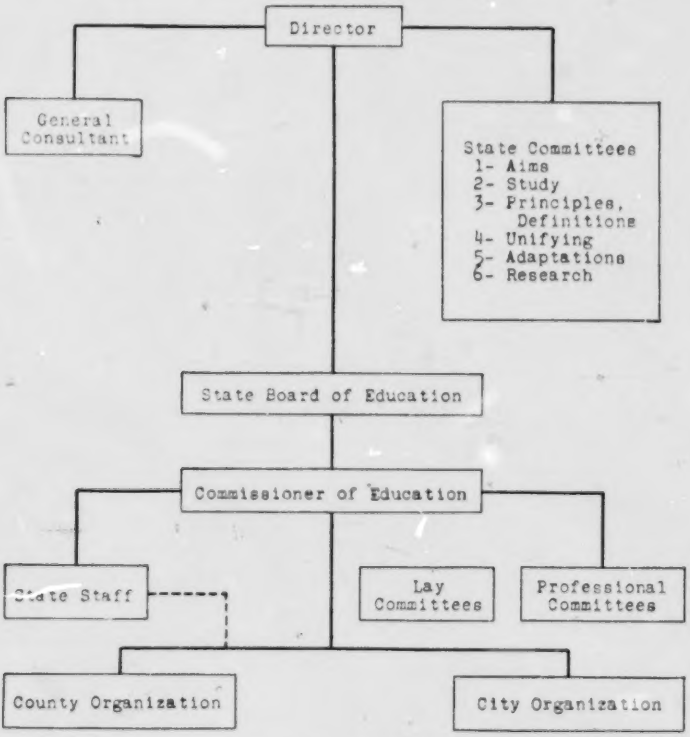
> Development of material for State courses of study is done primarily by classroom teachers. This is another way of saying that the year 1935-36 is to be devoted to an intensive effort on the part of teachers and those working with them toward the improvement of teaching. During the past year school people and laymen entered into the orientation study in a spirit of cooperation unprecedented in undertakings of this kind. Two thousand enrolled in orientation courses by extension, more enrolled for summer courses. It is estimated that 35,000 engaged in the study of our education program. The first year was spent in orientation work. The second is to be spent in curriculum production.

Curriculum development in Arkansas is described in one of its State bulletins, as follows:

> In 1933 the State board of education authorized a 4-year cooperative program to improve instruction directed by a member of the State department of education with two employed consultants. Teacher training institutions, parent-teacher associations, the Arkansas education association, superintendents, principals, and several thousand teachers are now cooperating (1935). The first year was devoted to organization of the study; the second year to refinement of aims and production; the third year to preparation of a tentative course as a guide to elementary and secondary teachers. Seven thousand teachers, 3,000 members of the State congress of parents and teachers, and all teacher training institutions participated.

The procedures outlined for these two States illustrate the very prevalent trend toward interesting large numbers of professional and lay people throughout the State in curricular-revision programs. In most States committees are formed—State, regional, and local—

some as reviewing committees, some subject-matter committees, some to prepare statements of principles, aims, and objectives, and others for the preparation of content material of varied types. In at least half a dozen States one or more curriculum consultants are employed to direct or advise with the directors of the program. Through a multiplicity of committees in most States opportunity for participation of literally thousands of teachers is provided.



Organization of the Arkansas Curriculum Program (Texas State Department of Education, Handbook for Curriculum Study, p. 52).

It is very general practice also to devote considerable space in recent State courses of study to statements of educational principles; to discussion of the relative importance of child growth and subject-matter achievement; to the importance of capitalizing on the child's experiences, using the immediate environment as a point of departure in school activities; to the wide use of local resources and materials; to the fact that content material is subject to constant change; to the need for recognizing individual differences; and the like.

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Maryland issues a series of courses characterized as "Goals" in the several school subjects, one of which emphasizes that "Growth should be measured not in terms of subject matter learning but in attitudes, skills, etc." The California Teachers' Guide to Child Development is "not a new course of study, rather a venture in State guidance and an aid in development of standards, objectives and procedures." These two examples illustrate the trend toward emphasizing goals and principles rather than subjects or content except as a means rather than an end.

Practically all recent State courses of study discuss the objectives of education, sometimes specifically for the particular State involved, generally both ultimate and immediate ends to be attained for each subject, topic, or unit, as well as outcomes to be expected; standards of achievement; means of evaluating achievements; and the like. Almost without exception courses of study warn against inclusion of static material and formalized practices; emphasize the inevitableness of changes in social situations and the consequent need for opportunity for local and individual initiative in the development of the curriculum. Connecticut is an example of a State with a definite policy on changing materials of instruction. Recognizing the need for continuing changes in materials suitable for school use, the State education department of Connecticut issues no completed course but prepares and distributes mimeographed circulars from time to time concerned with materials and practices.

An interesting development noticed in examining the more recent courses of study is the effort made in several of them to promulgate widely an understanding of a "newer" viewpoint in curriculum formulation and revision. Some courses aim to differentiate between the curriculum and the course of study. In others the two terms are considered synonymous or at least used interchangeably. The Virginia State course defines the curriculum as composed of all the experiences which the children have under the guidance of teachers. "Teachers and children", it states, (at work presumbably) "make the curriculum." The Texas Handbook, on the other hand, defines the curriculum as a "combination of activities and subject matter content used by the teacher in directing the learning experiences of her pupils." The West Virginia Elementary Course of Study defines the curriculum as "a body of ideas in the minds of teachers. It cannot be separated from the teachers." "Curriculum making is a cooperative task", the West Virginia course continues. "Committees may make outlines; teachers must fill in and develop details." The North Carolina course of study states, "The course is merely a guide to assist the teacher in developing a curriculum and making it effective."

Throughout the newer courses of study one finds less emphasis on

organization of material on the traditional subject-matter basis and more on nontraditional organization both for the content as a whole and within each of the school subjects presented. The Virginia State course of study presents an organization around 11 major functions of social life. "Centers of interest" for each of the school grades or years are selected and suggested material for study of each of the major functions is provided suitable for use in each of the grades or years.

In West Virginia four committees were organized composed of outstanding teachers from different sections of the State for the purpose of "integrating and articulating the work of the schools." These committees are: (1) Language committee; (2) methods of exact thinking committee; (3) broad view of the world committee; and (4) individual needs committee.

The Texas "approach" to curriculum organization is characterized in the Handbook [8] as "eclectic", that is to say, choosing what is thought best from various approaches. The Handbook presents a chart for grades I to XI, inclusive, in which 8 major social functions are made the basis of organization. They are: Production, distribution and consumption, communication and transportation, government, health, recreation, arts, education. The Tentative Course of Study for Texas, Years One through Six,[9] presents also an interesting "Pattern for Curriculum Construction" which shows "a number of the more important phases of curriculum activity closely related to the dominant themes of the several core areas." The chart is shown on page 24. The Arkansas organization presents five major functions: [10] Protection of life, property, and resources; production and consumption; communication and transportation; recreation; expression and aesthetic impulses; expression and religious impulses; education.

Throughout the newer courses much emphasis is laid on the use and desirability of activity units. Suggestive units, materials, and directions for their use are given in abundance in a number of courses. A few courses are organized wholly or in large part on the activity or experience unit basis. California was among the first States to initiate this plan in its Teacher's Guide to Child Development, published in 1930. Hawaii, too, in that year published an Activity Program for the Primary Grades.

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[8] Op. cit.

[9] Texas. State Department of Education. Tentative Course of Study for Years One Through Six. Austin, Tex., May 1936.

[10] Arkansas. State Department of Education. Procedures in the Production of Curriculum Materials. Little Rock, Ark., 1934.

GENERAL PATTERN FOR CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION[1]

Showing core areas of group culture and subject matter for five trunk lines of curriculum activity

	A	B	C	D	E
I. Core areas.	Language arts.	Social relations.	Home and vocational arts.	Creative and recreative arts.	Nature, mathematics and science.
II. Dominant theme. III. Dominant outcomes.	Language. Command and appreciation of language.	Society. Social adaptation. Citizenship. World service.	Security. Security and success in home and vocation.	Individual development. Health. Character. Individuality. Self-expression.	Science. Command and appreciation of science. Problem-solving. Scientific thinking.
IV. Major phases in functional curriculum (involve experimental, technical, and cultural strands).	1. Literature. 2. Reading. 3. Creative expression. 4. Communication. 5. Correct usage: a. Correct forms. b. Spelling. c. Grammar. d. Diagnosis. e. Correction.	1. Production. 2. Distribution and consumption. 3. Communication and transportation. 4. Government. 5. Education. 6. Conduct. 7. Safety.	1. Prevocational activities. 2. Homemaking. 3. Occupations. 4. Vocational guidance. 5. Vocational efficiency. 6. Conduct. 7. Safety.	1. Prevocational activities. 2. Homemaking. 3. Music. 4. Art. 5. Recreation. 6. Exploration. 7. Educational guidance.	1. Elementary science. 2. Mathematics. 3. General science. 4. Pure science. 5. Applied science.
V. Typical related subjects (also related to other areas).	Spelling. Penmanship. French.	Social science. Geography. History.	Home economics. Typewriting. Agriculture.	Drawing. Physiology. Harmony.	Arithmetic. Botany. Physics.

[1] Texas. State Department of Education. Tentative Course of Study for Years 1 Through 6. May 1936. p. 15. Prepared by Fred C. Ayer, general curriculum consultant Texas Curriculum Revision Program, The University of Texas, November 1935. (To be modified and expanded as needed.)

Newer emphases or new organizations of the subjects of instruction are noticeable in nearly all recent State courses of study. The social studies have a prominent place in all of the recent courses. Often a special bulletin or course in the social studies is issued; in some States the social studies are part of the science course; in others the social studies are included as an added subject in the general course. The trend toward combining geography, history, and civics as an integrated social studies course in the elementary schools has become Nation-wide.

Problems concerned with conservation of human and material resources are receiving increased attention in schools if one can judge by the place assigned them in the more recent courses. Safety education, health education with emphasis on health habits, and the importance of character objectives in the school program are stressed in an increasing number of courses. Some States issue special bulletins on character education. Michigan, Nebraska, and Oregon are examples. Physical education, the natural and general elementary sciences, continue to be of constantly growing importance in the school program. Music and art are other subjects which are taking an increasingly important place in school curricula, while special outlines for teaching agriculture and the influence of alcohol and narcotics are found in nearly all State courses due in part to legislative action. In several States, State or county libraries are closely associated with the rural schools—even operating through them in the circulation of books among adults as well as school children. In these and a few other States school and library relationships are discussed in courses of study or special bulletins.

State courses of study show the awareness of school officials of many special curricular problems peculiar to the respective State or to regions within them. Texas issues a special pamphlet on the teaching of English to non-English-speaking children; Puerto Rico issues a bulletin for teachers on the teaching of English; Utah has a pamphlet on Suggestions to Teachers for the Use of the School Library; New York has a bulletin on the hot lunch and several bulletins prepared especially for teachers in small rural schools.

In a number of States special courses of study or special bulletins outlining suggested adaptations of the general course for small rural schools are prepared. The Pennsylvania State department issued a special handbook for 1-teacher schools recently, supplemented by suggestions for a four-group organization of 1-teacher schools. Suggestions for adaptations of subject matter to the reorganized school, including daily schedules and programs based on successive steps from the traditional to the new organization are included. North Dakota has special courses for rural schools which include, besides the traditional subjects, social studies, art, health, music,

and suggestions for alterations and combinations of grades and subjects. In Ohio, also, special courses for small schools are issued by the State department of education including courses in music for 1- and 2-teacher schools. In many State courses of study suggestions to teachers concerned with curricular adaptations suited to small rural schools; for reducing the number of classes or of daily recitations through alternation and combination; for program making, including sample daily or weekly schedules, are included. In general, practice seems to favor the inclusion in the general course of suggested adaptations to the special needs of small rural schools rather than the preparation of separate courses or special bulletins. The freedom given the teachers in the use of the newer courses of study and the arrangements made for wide participation in preparing them by teachers in all types of schools, rural and urban, indicate that they are expected to use their own initiative and solve problems of adaptation more or less for themselves.

IMPROVEMENT OF THE PROFESSIONAL STAFF

The teachers.—Practically all of the States have been active during the past decade in promoting professional qualifications of teachers through raising standards of teaching certificates. The movement toward centralizing authority for certificating teachers in State boards or departments of education noted in 1927 [11] has continued to practical consummation. In all but five States certification is now governed or controlled through centralized educational authorities, usually State departments of education. Oklahoma and Michigan enacted legislation in 1934 and 1935, placing with State officials full responsibility for setting up certification regulations (formerly prescribed by legislation) as well as authority for granting certificates.

Of still more importance is the trend toward increasing academic and professional requirements for teaching certificates, particularly for the lowest grade of teaching certificate obtainable. Small rural schools, because of their limited resources, practically always pay lower salaries than urban centers and consequently relatively untrained and inexperienced teachers gravitate to these schools. Only the setting up of standards requiring professional training of higher grade for any, even the lowest grade certificate, assures children in rural communities of adequately prepared teachers.

Requirements for the lowest grade of certificates have been increased during the past decade in more than 25 States. There is a definite trend toward demanding graduation from teacher-prepar-

[11] State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1927, No. 19.

ing institutions of higher grade for any, including the lowest grade teaching certificate. Three States now require 4 full years of college preparation, including professional preparation, for all teachers. Six additional States require 3 years; another 18 require a minimum of 2 years above high-school graduation making a total of 27 States that require 2 years or more of professional training of higher grade for any type of certificate.[12] This represents an increase in the number of States demanding qualifications of the kind indicated for the lowest grade of certificate from 4 to 23 since 1926.

Improving qualifications of superintendents.—Efforts toward improving the professional qualifications of rural school superintendents, usually known as county superintendents of schools, are noticeable in two directions—through the legal requirement of a certificate based on experience and training in education, generally including administration, and through establishment of organized in-service training adapted to the special needs of rural school superintendents.

The trend toward demanding special administrative certificates is growing slowly in practice, though more and more widely recognized as beneficial if not essential, in theory. Usually laws requiring certification apply only to new appointees and staff improvement is accomplished slowly. Louisiana, West Virginia, Kentucky, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, either by law or regulation or established practice, report that rural school superintendents are expected to hold at least the A. B. degree and that all or nearly all have met or exceeded that requirement.

There is a definite trend, usually on the part of the chief State school officer, toward encouraging or definitely providing means for promoting the professional growth of rural school superintendents in service. The county superintendent is an elective official in the majority of the States. While professional qualifications and educational experience are generally expected of candidates for the office, legal requirements are usually nominal. In States in which the county superintendent is an appointive officer, professional qualifications are usually higher and the trend is more marked toward improvement. However, even in States favorably situated in respect to certification and appointment, in-service training is essential to efficient administration.

New York is among the States in which the State department of education definitely provides for and encourages professional training for its district superintendents in service. The State department cooperates with Cornell University in the conduct of

[12] Mimeographed Circular of U. S. Office of Education, September 1935, and vol. 5 of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers.

special short courses for district superintendents during the summer session. It encourages superintendents to take occasional leave for work during the school year and provides zone conferences annually for district superintendents during which current supervisory problems are discussed. The State department reports 87 percent of the district (rural) superintendents enrolled in professional courses (1933).

In Wisconsin, supervisors from the State department of education hold conferences, State and sectional, for superintendents and supervisors. Minnesota employs five elementary supervisors who spend their time in the field visiting schools with county superintendents and offering them definite help in supervision and through group teachers' meetings. Iowa and Utah issue mimeographed circulars to rural school superintendents designed to help them with specific phases of the instructional program. In many States the higher institutions of learning cooperate by offering short intensive courses of a week or more in duration in which pertinent and practical problems of rural superintendents are discussed. Texas and Missouri are examples of such States.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF RURAL ELEMENTARY TEACHERS[13]

Of the 184 State teachers colleges and normal schools training elementary teachers in 1935, 84 percent offered differentiated work for the preparation of rural teachers. The amount of differentiation varied from the offering of one course such as rural-school management or rural-school practice teaching to the offering of a differentiated curriculum with rural emphasis throughout.

One hundred fifteen State teacher-training institutions offered one or more curricula differentiated for rural teachers, distributed as follows: 1-year, 15; 2-year, 58; 3-year, 4; and 4-year, 38. It is significant that the number of 1- and 2-year rural curricula has declined since 1926–27, while the number of 4-years curricula has almost doubled.[14] Shift of the teacher-training institutions from the status of normal schools to teachers colleges and rising standards of teacher preparation partly account for the change. At present a great majority of rural teachers have not had 4 years of professional training before beginning teaching, a situation which probably will not change in the near future. Those interested in rural education must face this fact with the question as to whether or not the first 2 or 3

[13] Prepared by William McKinley Robinson, director, department of rural education, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.

[14] For further data and discussion of offerings differentiated for the preparation of rural teachers, see Practices and Trends in the Preparation of Teachers for Rural Elementary Schools in the State Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools. William McKinley Robinson, 1936, 125 p.

years of a 4-year degree curriculum with its usual majors and minors prepares as well as does the 2- or 3-year curriculum which has been planned as a unit.

Courses differentiated for the preparation of rural teachers may be classified in three groups: Professional, background, and subject-matter. In 1934–35 courses were offered as follows in the 184 State teachers colleges and normal schools preparing elementary teachers.

	Number of institutions	*Percent of institutions*
Professional courses	*134*	*73*
Rural-school practice teaching	92	50
Rural-school observation	67	36
Rural-school administration	48	26
Rural-school management	93	51
Rural-school curriculum	48	26
Rural-school methods	47	26
Rural-school libraries	4	2
Rural seminar or surveys	12	7
Background courses	*109*	*59*
Rural-community activities and relations	34	19
Rural sociology	94	51
Rural economics	28	15
Differentiated subject-matter courses	*53*	*29*
Reading and English	17	9
Mathematics	8	4
Agriculture and nature study	19	10
Elementary science	3	2
Geography	9	5
Social sciences	6	3
Health and physical education	17	9
Home economics	12	7
Industrial arts	12	7
Music	18	10
Fine arts	11	6
Handwriting	1	0.5

To the courses offered for the elementary teacher might be added those for others in the field of rural education: Rural high school, offered in 6 of the State teacher-training institutions; rural-school supervision, in 24; and rural-school administration for superintendents of consolidated schools or county superintendents, in 27.

It may be noted that rural-school practice teaching, rural-school management, and rural sociology are each offered in one-half of the institutions. There is a tendency toward more intensive periods of rural practice teaching with the added opportunity of participating in community activities. From 11 of the colleges students remain the entire day in the rural school while doing practice teaching. In 8 of the 11 they live in the rural community throughout the time of the assignment.

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During the expansion period in the development of State teacher-training institutions, following the World War and extending to the beginning of the depression, there was a steady increase in the number of offerings differentiated for rural teachers. In the last few years a reversal of that trend has occurred. The presidents of some of the colleges state that for financial reasons a general curtailment was necessary. It would seem that a few consider rural courses and curricula as added features rather than fundamental parts of the college offering. Some of the others explain the curtailment on the basis of the dwindling need for rural teachers because of the dwindling number of 1-teacher schools. To these few it would seem that rural education is confined to the problems of the "little red school house." In contrast to that conception is that of the rural education specialists who justify differentiation on the basis of problems peculiar to education in areas of relatively low density of population.

The training of rural teachers is considered by their presidents to be the primary function of 18 of the State teachers colleges and normal schools—just twice the number so reported in 1926–27. These institutions, located in areas predominantly rural, are widely scattered throughout the United States.

Nineteen of the institutions require each student in the elementary school curricula to have some preparation for teaching in rural schools. In three States—New Hampshire, New York, and Oregon—such requirement is State-wide for the State teacher-training institutions. Practically all explain the requirement on the basis that most graduates begin their teaching experience in rural schools. There is a growing recognition of the injustice of making the rural schools the proving ground of the profession, particularly in view of their other handicaps—financial, administrative, supervisory, material, social, etc. Requiring some training for rural school work on the part of all elementary teachers is but to meet an immediate need the better, thereby delaying an ultimate solution of some of the major problems of rural education.

To the more formal professional preparation afforded by the differentiated curricula and courses may be added the informal practical training for leadership in rural education and community life to be found through participation in the rural-life clubs. Social hours at a minimum of expense combined with serious consideration of rural-life problems usually characterize the activities of these clubs which are frequently among the most popular on the campuses. Twenty-nine of the 43 teachers-college clubs reporting maintain membership in the collegiate section of the American Country Life Association. Through attendance at the annual conferences of the association, students from widely separated points come in contact

with national leaders and experts in their joint study of the problems of the many phases of rural life.

Probably one of the most significant developments in the provisions for rural education in the State teachers colleges and normal schools has been the up-grading of the faculty members. Through correspondence with the presidents it was learned that in 88 of the institutions rural education is assigned as a major responsibility to one or more of the faculty members. Data for 1934–35 in the following table are limited to those 75, each of whom is the one carrying the greatest responsibility for prospective rural teachers in his own college, for whom degrees were listed in the college catalogs. From two earlier studies published by the Office of Education are taken comparable data.

Degree	Percent by year		
	1917–18 [1]	1926–27 [2]	1934–35
Doctor's degree	4.7	7.6	21.3
Master's degree	40.6	50.6	65.3
Bachelor's degree	39.1	40.5	10.7
No degree	19.6	1.3	2.7

[1] Burnham, Ernest. Rural Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 77. p. 27.
[2] Robbinson, William McKinley. State Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools Reporting Courses in Rural Education and Faculty Members Responsible for the Interests of Prospective Rural Teachers. United States Office of Education, Rural School Circular No. 1.

Following the report of the National Education Association Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools in 1897, high-school teacher-training classes and county normal schools played an increasingly important role in the preparation of rural teachers until comparatively recent years. In 1922–23, the 1,743 such institutions enrolled more than 32,000 students in 24 of the States. In 1934–35 the number of these training groups had dropped to 615, confined to 8 States: Iowa, 170; Kansas, 66; Michigan, 32; Minnesota, 78; Missouri, 9; Nebraska, 207; Wisconsin, 44; and Wyoming, 9.

The recognition given the importance and seriousness of the problems of the training of rural teachers in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers is most encouraging. Of the 20 recommendations on Important Problems or Things To Be Done in the Education of Teachers, one in part is as follows:

> To provide large numbers of teachers better and more specifically prepared for rural schools. A problem demanding the immediate attention in a majority of the States is that of raising the standards for the preparation of teachers in the rural and village schools until they equal those held for the urban centers. Standards should be equal in amount and quality but this does not mean identity of content because the rural teachers need special preparation. Rural life and the problems of rural areas are sociologically and economically of such great importance that all

teachers should be familiar with them just as rural school teachers should be familiar with similar problems for urban and industrial areas.[15]

TRENDS IN THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION[16]

Supervision of schools in rural communities is a function for which the State has long assumed some responsibility. The role which the State plays in local supervision differs among States. Sometimes it is confined largely to inspectional standardizing, or stimulating functions concerned more or less directly with the improvement of instruction and usually carried on by members of the staff of the State department of education. In some States higher institutions of learning cooperate with State departments in this work. A few States, usually those which are small in territory or of sparse population employ an adequate number of supervisors on the staff of the chief State school officer to provide supervision for the rural communities within their borders. Nevada, Vermont, and Connecticut, with widely varying practices, however, are examples. In other States the practice is established, and it is a growing one, of employing supervisors assigned to local communities—local counties or towns, for example—paid from State funds. Wisconsin and New Jersey are examples. The State may and usually does set up standards of qualifications, nominate or employ supervisors, or it may delegate considerable freedom in respect to employment of supervisors to local administrative officials. There are a number of States in which supervision is almost wholly a local matter. Illinois and Indiana are examples. In general in these States few supervisors are employed. Indeed it appears evident that the more important the role the State plays in supervision the greater the progress made both from the point of view of extending supervision on a State-wide basis and from that of improving the quality of supervision.

Two studies concerned with the number of supervisors employed in rural communities in the United States made in the Office of Education—one in 1930 and one now under way[17]—make it possible to compare progress in this direction during the 5-year period indicated. It is encouraging to find that supervision of rural schools during this period has not only held its own in spite of the effects of the depression, but that there is a slight gain in the total number of supervisors for the country as a whole and an encouraging gain in each of several States. In 1930, 945 supervisors were engaged in the schools of approximately 22 percent of the counties in the United States. For

[15] National Survey of the Education of Teachers. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, No. 10, vol. VI, p. 249.

[16] Prepared by Helen May Heyl, associate supervisor, rural education, New York State Department of Education.

[17] Supervision and Rural School Improvement. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1930, No. 31.

Status of Rural School Supervision in the United States in 1935-36. Pamphlet No. 72.

the school year 1935–36, 975 such supervisors are reported in 27 percent of the total number of counties.

Another encouraging sign is that increases in numbers of rural-school supervisors are reported over an area covering 16 States. They are California, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Virginia. Notable increases were made in Virginia, Delaware, Louisiana, and California, while Alabama, North Carolina, and Ohio report definite losses in number of persons assigned to local instructional supervision.

Summaries of information from the study under way show that, judged by numbers of supervisors employed, progress has been made during the 5-year period 1930–35, in 28 States. In two States, Maryland and Wisconsin, in which the county is the unit for supervision, supervisors are employed in 100 percent of the counties. Rural supervision in both may be said, therefore, to be State-wide in scope. In California 91 percent of the counties employ supervisors. In Pennsylvania and West Virginia assistant county superintendents supervise instruction. They are employed in 84 percent and 74 percent, respectively, of the total number of counties of these two States. These facts indicate a definite trend toward providing local supervision of instruction for rural schools, actively encouraged and usually subsidized to the extent of all or a large percent of salaries by the State.

Another fairly definite trend reported is toward variability in the type of service offered by the supervisors. A few years ago the term rural supervisor rather generally connotated a general supervisor of instruction in rural elementary and secondary schools. Today the term is applied to attendance and to welfare officers as, for example, in California where 31 of the 94 supervisors working in special subjects or fields are so listed; to health supervisors or to special health teachers; to art and to music supervisors; to special art or music teachers who divide their time among several schools; to visiting teachers; to supervisors of physically handicapped children; to physical education specialists; and to social studies, penmanship, and elementary science supervisors or teachers who work among the schools of the open country.

Are these special subject and special service supervisors persons who guide the teaching of regular classroom teachers or are they, for the most part, teachers of special subjects who travel from school to school? If the former, are they acting as educational consultants in a generalized program of education which is administered and supervised by a superintendent and by a general supervisor of instruction who unifies and coordinates the efforts of all? If the latter, are they learning to coordinate their teaching with that of the

regular teachers? This increasing tendency to employ types of special supervision in rural areas suggests another widespread effort to provide rural children with those services which they have previously lacked and indicates a need for careful study of the place and function of the special teacher in the integrated program of modern education. For example, in New York State more than 1,000 1-teacher schools now employ persons to supplement and assist the work of regular classroom teachers in almost every special field mentioned above; but these persons are not listed as supervisors. They are traveling teachers who work in designated groups of 1-teacher schools and who are themselves now asking, "Where do we and our specialty best fit into the program of progressive education in which the total growth needs of every child is being studied?"

Probably the greatest change that has occurred in the field of rural supervision, however, lies not in the amount and types of such services or in the various arrangements under which they function, but in the changes in the techniques and emphases in supervision itself, as employed by the great body of general rural school supervisors who still dominate the field.

In 1928–29 rural supervisors in a few States were attacking the problems of curriculum construction and of inner school reorganization, equipment, and management; but such movements were limited to a few States and consisted more in guiding the experimental tryouts of new courses planned by State department officials or Statewide committees than in local planning of curriculum. The efforts of the general supervisor in rural areas were still largely fixed upon the improvement of instruction in the established school subjects, upon the development of mimeographed and printed bulletins instructing teachers how to conduct these improvements, upon group conferences of teachers in which the newer methods of teaching particular subjects were demonstrated and upon other familiar supervisory devices. Such programs in supervision were measured largely in terms of children's achievement as determined through a program of standardized achievement tests and group mental tests. As late as 1932, emphasis was still placed upon rating teachers, acquiring standard teaching equipment, standardizing school buildings, and the like, as a means of improving the rural child's educational environment in the small school. In at least one State, the State supervisors assisted by local supervisors were attempting to develop a standard score card for checking school buildings and equipment in 1936.

Through the 8-year period, however, new trends have slowly emerged and these appear to lead in the direction of a more creative type of supervision. Supervisors today vision for their teachers the same opportunities for creativeness and growth that progressive

teachers desire for their children. Among the changed practices indicating these tendencies may be listed the following:

1. The effort of many supervisors to concentrate upon the activities of children rather than upon the activities of teachers.

The work done by Sadie Goggins in Alabama in attempting a study of the activity program is an excellent illustration of this tendency.

2. The gradual introduction of activity programs for children, leading to the development of experience curriculums.

This change is marked in many sections of the country and does not represent merely the mouthing of new phrases but a substantial change in educational philosophy and program, based upon deepened knowledge of how learning takes place. The underlying principle in this change is a recognition that experiences which are real to children should provide the content to be studied. Interesting illustrations of this change are reported from two North Carolina counties and from schools in New York State. Accounts of the work carried on contain examples of activity programs developed in rural schools.[18]

3. The larger participation in curriculum planning by teachers in local areas as one phase of a democratic supervisory program, and by supervisors in State programs.

The planning of curriculum materials with marked participation by rural supervisors is well illustrated by the New Jersey State Course of Study in Social Studies and Related Activities, and by the new Virginia course of study. The development of local courses has gone forward in several States, as, for example, in Connecticut where such work has been under the guidance of field supervisors and assistant field supervisors, who are assigned directly by the State Department to work in from two to as many as nine of the smaller towns each and whose duty it is to supervise the schools in these rural communities.

4. The development of working group conferences of teachers in place of the older type of teachers' institutes or of the typical conference of demonstration and critique.

In some States where the county institute is still maintained, as in Maine and Michigan, there has been a change in the type of institute, so that through the active participation of teachers and principals in planning the program and through frank

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[18] Gustin, Margaret, and Hayes, Margaret. Activities in the Public Schools. Chapel Hill, Univ. of N. C. Press, 1934.
New York. State Department of Education. Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education. A series of reports.
—— —— —— Curriculum Guides for Teachers of 5-Year-Old Children.
—— —— —— A Guide to the Teaching of Health.

discussion of problems from the floor of the institute much has been done to modernize this activity. In other States the working group conference has almost wholly supplanted the institute, as in New York State where last year 916 such working conferences were held by teachers themselves, with the assistance of the rural school superintendents of that State.

5. The larger participation of teachers in planning the supervisory program.

This practice is notably true in New Jersey where committees of teachers plan with the supervisors the type of supervisory activity which they wish to have carried on and where programs, therefore, are based upon the felt needs of teachers and children. Similar democratic practices are found in many other sections of the country.

6. The long-term program in supervision, with planned shifts in emphasis over a period of years.

Such long-term programs view supervision as educational leadership which involves the cooperation of all or most of the teachers of a group in planning what is to be done, in determining how it should be done, and deciding when it shall be done. Any long-term program implies adequate provision for flexibility; allowance for revision of the plan from month to month and from year to year; for bringing each year's major problems to temporary culmination; for evaluating method and progress; and for determining next steps.

7. The study of child development.

California, New York, and North Carolina are typical examples of States in which rural supervisors and superintendents have carefully guided teachers in a study of children as the basis for determining supervisory programs. Growing out of the recognition of individual differences among children, among groups of children, and in environmental opportunity, such study has led to the growth of a spirit in supervision in which the supervisor becomes a student with her teachers. If the total growth needs of children are to be met—that is, the health and emotional-social needs as well as those of mental development—the supervisory technics and procedures become very different from those employed when the chief aim is improvement in the technics of teaching a particular field of subject matter.

8. The larger participation of parents in educational planning.

Organization of parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, school and home clubs, and similar clubs to stimulate school-

home relationships has long been regarded as a proper function of rural supervisors. Originally the purpose was to keep parents and school patrons generally informed about the school program, to enlist their aid in the improvement of the school plant and equipment, and to obtain their support for educational budgets. With greater understanding of how children learn came an emphasis upon parental education in order that the home might more intelligently reinforce what the school was trying to do. A shift in these emphases in the past few years would indicate that a new trend is emerging, and today supervisors, principals, teachers, and superintendents look to parents not merely for cooperation with the school but that the school may cooperate with the home; not merely for support in a program planned by the educational group, but for active participation by the parents in this educational planning.

Certain trends reported from scattered sections of the country may suggest other tendencies in supervisory practices now emerging. Among these may be listed the effort to develop flexibility rather than standardization in arrangement of school furnishings and equipment; the development of new methods in recording pupils' progress, as illustrated by numerous new types of report cards and permanent record forms, and by use of the personal diary and anecdotal records; the increasing effort to develop subjective-objective standards for evaluating the total educational program rather than to place emphasis upon the old type of standard rural school score card. Such a set of standards and checks is being developed in rural New York at the present time. Beginning with the Mort-Cornell outline, "A Test of Educational Lag of School Systems,"[19] Burke and Caldwell in 1935 developed, from these standards, their "Tentative Standards and Check List for Studying Local Initiative in the Common School Districts of New York State."[20] These standards cover the following areas of study: I. Pupil growth and adjustment; II. The teacher; III. The educational program; IV. Physical facilities; V. Administration and supervision.

As a sample of the type of content treated in these standards the following is selected from the section on Pupil Growth and Adjustments, Individual Accomplishments in School Activities:

Standards

1. There should be evidence that the personality of each individual pupil is being developed as indicated by poise, confidence in his own ideas, critical thinking, and self-evaluation.

[19] Mort, Paul R., *and* Cornell, Francis G. A Test of Educational Lag of School Systems.
[20] Burke, Arvie, *and* Caldwell, Alexander. Tentative Standards and Check List for Studying Local Initiative in the Common School Districts of New York State.

2. Individual pupils should develop ability to plan and to execute individual units of work, to work effectively with groups, to locate information in environment and in printed sources, to broaden their viewpoints through observation, and to do original and creative work.

These standards are now in process of revision [21] and further adaptation to local needs in New York State by the rural district superintendents of New York and their teachers.

Finally, especial emphasis should be placed upon the growing spirit of democracy in rural supervision. Increasingly, rural supervisors have become students with their teachers and children, rather than authoritative officers over them. Supervisors come as helpers, not as inspectors. They come to aid teachers in doing those things that the teachers and their children are eager to do and not to dictate what shall be done. They come also to bring a larger vision of what may be done. The major trend in rural supervision, therefore, can be regarded as definitely the tendency toward a highly democratic practice. This is as it should be. "In a democracy supervision should be democratic."

In summarizing these trends it may be said that the tendencies are:

From—	Toward—
Scattered service	Nation-wide service
A single generalized service	Many special services
Domination	Acting as consultants
Rating teachers	Studying children and their activities
Following courses of study	Guiding curriculum planning
Formalizing and standardizing procedure	Freeing and providing for flexibility
Adjusting classes	Adjusting to needs of individual children
Teaching parents	Cooperation with parents in planning the educational program
Exploitation of teachers	Developing the individual personality and creative purposes of teachers

Section III. Organization for Local Administration and Support

Prepared by Julian E. Butterworth, *Professor of Rural Education and Director of the Graduate School of Education, Cornell University*

Present status of local administrative units.—Although we have been passing through unusually severe economic conditions in which a reorganization of local units of educational administration in our rural areas would seem to be a logical outcome, there has, since 1928, been relatively little change in this matter. Seldom has there been so great a need for the pooling of financial resources for the maintenance of a minimum educational program. The common-school district is still the prevailing type of administrative unit in

[21] New York State Education Department. Tentative Standards and Check List for Studying Rural Educational Programs.

rural areas. According to last reports we still have approximately 127,000 administrative units for educational purposes in the United States. We have approximately 138,000 1-teacher schools.

While failure to secure a more effective type of organization in more of our States is disconcerting, the probable major reasons for this inactivity are not difficult to state. In the first place, the rural population is a relatively conservative and independent one and, even in the face of emergency, tends to rely largely upon its own resources. In the second place, it would appear that our professional group has not yet learned how to lead rural folk effectively. We have failed to make clear the importance of reorganization or have failed to propose types of reorganization that commend themselves to such a degree that the people are willing to risk possible increases in taxes for educational purposes.

The township is still an important rural administrative unit in Pennsylvania, Ohio, New Jersey, and Indiana, though the type of organization differs widely among these States. There are some units of this type in other States such as Iowa, Michigan, and North Dakota. In New England the town, somewhat comparable to the township in size if not in form, is still the local unit. Within these States, as well as within those having the common-school district, are found combinations of territory that bring about some degree of cooperation. Such, for example, is the consolidated school district, the community district, the central district (to be described later), and the union high-school district. In certain States the county is either the local unit or has considerable influence in the administration and support of education. In Louisiana and Maryland, only the largest cities are independent of the county in school organization. In the former State, two cities, in the latter, one—the city of Baltimore—constitute independent districts. In Utah independence of the district (usually the county) organization is extended to the larger cities. In Alabama the county organization is the prevaling unit, that is, all schools except those in independent districts are administered by the county board of education. Districts of 2,500 or more in population may become independent or by joint action of the two boards concerned may remain under the county board. There are several cities under county boards in Alabama. There are also two complete county organizations, urban and rural combined, in Mobile and Montgomery Counties. There is, then, a marked limitation in the influence of the county for administrative purposes. Certain limitations in control on the part of the county are found also in Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. In certain other States—Oregon, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Texas—there is legislation permitting the establishment of some form of county unit, but only a

few counties have adopted this type of organization. In Delaware the State is the unit for educational administration.

Recent developments.—Two States have made significant reorganizations concerned with rural administrative units during this period. West Virginia passed one of the most comprehensive county unit laws in existence, effective on July 1, 1933. The most important provisions of this law can best be presented through a quotation from a report by State Superintendent W. W. Trent:[22]

> The county unit law provides for one board of education for each county in the State. It distinctly forbids the board to appoint district trustees. The county board consists of five members elected by the people, not more than two of whom shall be elected from one magisterial district. This board is given the authority to appoint a county superintendent who shall be the executive school officer of the county and whose duty it shall be to recommend all teachers and staff members to the board. One can readily see that these provisions of the act added materially to the authority and responsibility of the county superintendent. In fact, it created a distinctly new type of superintendent and prescribed corresponding qualifications. * * * For the remainder of their terms the present county superintendents were retained in office, but boards of education were authorized to fix their duties and assign such duties as they may desire to other members of the teaching staff. The title of all school property was transferred to the county board but the bonded debt was retained as an obligation of the district which incurred it.

According to Superintendent Trent this county unit act was "in a sense a child of the depression." A drastic tax-limitation act, passed in 1932, made it imperative that governmental costs be markedly reduced. The county unit act was one of the means for getting such reduction. At the same time this action "rested upon a firm conviction that rural children were entitled to the same educational opportunities that urban children were." As a result 398 units of administration were combined into 55. During the first year the number of teachers was reduced from 16,282 to 15,340. A better distribution of pupils per teacher was made and there was a reduction in the costs of transportation, while all expenses were reduced by $4,468,710.

In Ohio significant reorganization is under way in part through enforcement of certain legal provisions of an act, effective in 1935, giving the chief State school officer considerable discretion in regard to the distribution of State school funds to small districts in which there is a school with an enrollment of 180 or fewer children, in part through cooperative action of the State and county education departments and in part through a State-wide survey of local school administrative organization directed by the Office of Education in cooperation with the State department of education.

[22] The Reorganization of Schools Under the County Unit. *From the* Biennial Report for the Two Years Ending, June 30, 1934. Charleston, W. Va., State Department of Free Schools. p. 8.

The act referred to requires county boards of education to study their respective counties with respect to the possibilities of eliminating small schools through transporting children to larger schools (transportation is a State responsibility in Ohio), and with respect to feasible consolidation of schools and school districts. As a result of the study the county board of education must present each April until 1938 a plan for the approval of the chief State school officer of reorganization to be effected during the following year. This officer—in Ohio the State director of education—is authorized to make adjustments as between counties or districts bordering on county boundary lines. In addition to changes which may be accomplished by this plan, the State in its discretion may withhold State aid to small schools, i. e., those enrolling 180 or fewer children, if in the judgment of State officials their discontinuance is feasible.

These two methods of promoting reorganization are reinforced, in effect, by the State-wide survey now under way in all of the counties in Ohio. As a result of these efforts State officials report that the number of school districts, of which there are about 1,900, is being substantially reduced.

A few other changes in recent years are worthy of note. New Mexico changed the membership of its county board of education from the county superintendent and four persons appointed by the district judge to five elected members. Kentucky reduced the number of types of districts from six to two. Iowa repealed a law providing for county high schools. Pennsylvania created a commission to study functions and costs of local governments. Texas authorized a county in which the United States Government has 1,000 or more acres of land for reforestation and in which the assessed valuation is at least 40 million dollars to establish a county unit for school administration. Vermont and Maine provided for a regrouping of districts for purposes of supervision. Missouri passed legislation establishing a county school districting board in each county whose major function is to present plans for enlarged school districts.

While the actual change in the set-up of administrative units has not been great during this period, much has occurred that holds promise for the future.

(1) There is a trend toward clarification of the objectives to be realized in the establishment of local units of control. These objectives tend to recognize, among other matters, the importance of developing an alert group of lay people. As a means of measuring the attainment of these objectives, we have established criteria that, being more definite, have enabled professional and lay men, alike, to see more clearly the implications of a reorganization.

(2) We seem to be growing away from the conception that there is one best type of local administrative unit and that this should be established throughout the United States, regardless of the type of governmental unit to which the people have been accustomed, the system of financial support, the state of development of the people as regards local government, and the like.

(3) Many specific studies of local situations now available give detailed facts by which we can picture the probable effect of a consolidated district or of a township district or of a county district as it affects transportation of pupils, the establishment of a supervisory program, the provision of additional educational facilities, the tax burden for schools, and the like. Some of these studies, it is true, go back as far as the early 1920's when the Office of Education initiated a few surveys of this type. One has, however, only to examine the bibliography of research studies as published by the United States Office of Education during the last 8 years to realize how much activity along this line has been going on. There are, literally, scores of such studies made by local administrative officials or by students seeking master's or doctor's degrees in our higher educational institutions. In virtually every section of every State these studies have stimulated objective thinking and, undoubtedly, both the facts and the method will have profound influence upon the recognition by rural citizens that certain changes are desirable and necessary if proper educational programs are to be established.[23] Unless this is achieved, the next 50 years will probably fail to give us the changes so much to be desired.

The following data as of 1933 are significant in evaluating these units:[24]

Type of unit prevailing	Average number of administrative units per State	Average area in square miles per State	Average number of school-board members per State	Average number of teaching positions per State	Average number of teaching positions per unit
1	2	3	4	5	6
State (1 State)	1	131	65	1,420	95
County (11 States)	145	377	700	13,412	93
Town or township (10 States)	629	28	2,810	17,243	27
District (26 States)	4,500	18	15,094	19,361	5
Average, including all types for United States	2,051	23	8,937	17,497	7

[23] See the following references for functional analyses of democratic leadership and of factors significant in effective leadership: Butterworth, Julian E. *Principles of Rural School Administration*, chs. X, XI; Bogardus, E. S. *Fundamentals of Social Psychology*, especially pp. 469, 471; Mumford, Eben. Origins of Leadership, in *American Journal of Sociology*, XII; 216-40, 367-97, 500-31; Todd, Arthur J. *Theories of Social Progress*, especially chs. 25-27, 33.

[24] Deffenbaugh, W. S., *and* Covert, Timon. School Administration Units. (U. S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 34.) p. 5.

Which units are best?—Even though we may admit that no one type of administrative unit is best for all rural situations, it is significant that studies are being made to measure the relative effectiveness of these several units and to isolate the factors that appear to be important in developing an effective school system. Cressman [25] compared seven counties in Maryland, a county unit State, with seven in Pennsylvania where the township and the borough are the prevailing types of units in the rural areas. He summarized the results of this investigation as follows:

> Finally, the evidence of this investigation indicates that in the following financial aspects of education studied, viz, the distribution of expenditures for the various divisions of the budget, the nonresident high-school tuition situation, the economy of the administration of transportation service, and the equalization of the costs thereof and the general equalization of the weight of taxation, the Maryland plan of county administration is superior to the township, borough, and city plan in Pennsylvania. From the county supervisory point of view there is also distinct evidence of the superiority of the Maryland plan. In the bases used for taxation there are apparent no outstanding advantages for either State, except that Maryland uses general property for State school taxation, an extension of an already existing evil.
>
> As a stimulation toward the more rapid closing of one-teacher schools, there seems to be nothing to clearly and definitely indicate that the Maryland county unit plan of administration is superior to the Pennsylvania plan. In the matter of entrance upon high-school opportunities by graduates of the elementary school, the Pennsylvania counties studied seem to show better results, while in general financial administration, certain rather large savings make the county unit plan of Maryland distinctly superior in this respect to the township, borough and city system of Pennsylvania.

Dawson,[26] preparing the statement of principles for a conference on the reorganization of school units, in 1935, analyzed the functions of an administrative unit as follows:

> (a) To provide one or more satisfactory attendance units which can offer in an efficient manner at least 12 years of instruction to all pupils residing within the limits of the administrative unit.
>
> (b) To furnish either at local expense or State expense, or both, at a cost that bears a reasonable relationship to the total current cost of the educational program, administrative and supervisory services necessary to facilitate the operation of the whole educational program.
>
> (c) To provide, where the State does not guarantee the funds to pay the entire cost of the whole educational program, sufficient financial resources to support a satisfactory educational program.

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[25] Cressman, George R. Local Units for Educational Administration. The author, Public Schools of Chester County, West Chester, Pa. pp. 238, 239.

[26] Reorganization of School Units: A Report of the Proceedings of a Conference Called by the Commissioner of Education, Washington, June 17–19, 1935. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1935, No. 15.) pp. 7, 8.

Butterworth [27] gives four factors that he considers important:

> 1. The ability of the local district to support the desired educational program. This is determined partly by the wealth of the community, partly by the prevailing standard of educational costs, partly by the sums available through the State for purposes of equalizing opportunities among the various subdivisions of the State.
>
> 2. The number of pupils enrolled must be sufficient to provide adequate curricula at reasonable cost.
>
> 3. The stage of the development in cooperation for social ends is also likely to be an important consideration in determining the type of local unit. The group that is to cooperate effectively for the development of a progressive educational program should be large enough to be stimulating. It should be sufficiently small and homogeneous, however, so that genuine cooperation may be developed if it does not already exist.
>
> 4. The quality of leadership available in developing an interest in educational affairs will be an important factor. Under leadership of the highest type unfavorable conditions may be overcome. Unless there is a fair chance that the available leadership is adequate to compass this, it is a question how far the local unit should go beyond existing bounds until that leadership may be changed.

As will be seen later, the differences in these analyses are of considerable significance in determining the type of administrative unit that should be established.

As a result of a study of the "functions and principles of formulation, organization, and administration of satisfactory local school units," Dawson [28] proposed specific standards for a local school unit. The following statements present briefly his major standards:

> (1) An elementary school should have an absolute minimum of 6 teachers or a desirable minimum of 7 teachers, which, with 40 pupils per teacher, will require, therefore, a minimum enrollment of 240 to 280.
>
> (2) A 6-year high school should have an absolute minimum of 7 teachers or a desirable minimum of 10 teachers, which, with 30 pupils per teacher, will require a minimum of 210 to 300 pupils.
>
> (3) There should be at least 1 supervisor to each 40 or 50 teaching positions.
>
> (4) Accepted standards of health work require at least 1 health nurse to each 2,000 school children and at least 1 supervisor of health education for the school system.
>
> (5) There should be at least 1 attendance supervisor or officer for not more than 6,000 census children.
>
> (6) The number of employees necessary for a standard administrative and supervisory organization, without requiring 1 person to perform two or more specialized services, is 31 persons. Such an organization would accommodate approximately 12,000 pupils. Since it seldom is possible to organize local administrative units of 12,000 or more pupils, it becomes necessary to modify the central administrative and supervisory staff.

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[27] Butterworth, Julian E. Types of Local School Units. *In* The Status of Rural Education, 30th Yearbook, pt. 1, of the National Society for the Study of Education. Pp. 204-205.

[28] Dawson, Howard A. Satisfactory Local School Units. Field Study No. 7, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers. Pp. 39, 59, 60, 82.

> Two possible modifications have been presented—the median modification calling for a staff of 17 persons, an organization that can accommodate approximately 6,000 pupils; and the maximum modification calling for 4 persons, an organization that can accommodate 1,750 pupils.
>
> (7) * * * the minimum size of a satisfactory local unit is approximately 1,600 pupils and 46 teaching units. It has also been found that in order to avoid the performance of two or more specialized services by one individual the size of the local unit of school administration should be approximately 9,800 pupils and 280 teaching units.

A segregation of the more important questions involved in the determination of desirable administrative units may help to clarify the problem. Five questions are therefore presented:

(1) How far should educational units of organization and administration follow political and geographical lines? There are two distinct schools of thought as regards this matter. One would make the township or (preferably) the county the unit, while the other would emphasize factors of social integration leading to the establishment of administrative units designated by such varying names as consolidated district, community district, central district, and the like. While the general practice has been to follow political lines in the establishment of larger units, especially where State-wide action is taken, there has, in recent years, been an increasing recognition of social factors. In the New York program of central districts these factors are basic. Studies made in Pennsylvania,[29] New Jersey,[30] and Missouri,[31] either advocate school units wholly independent of political units or suggest more or less extensive modifications of political units where they are used. The Pennsylvania report states that "an administrative unit shall consist of such an area as by geographic, commercial, and social conditions have a common community center. Such an area may include an entire county." Professor Moehlman[32] of the University of Michigan says:

> The answer to this question as to the type of administrative unit must be sought in the function of the school district. The problem cannot be approached from the standpoint of saving money or a worship of mere size. Schools do not exist either to spend or to save money. They are required to perform an essential social function. They must, therefore, be planned in relation to this function.
>
> The purposes of the natural community are economic, social, political, and educational. Its *terrain* will include three mutually related and more or less dependent groups, now generally operating at tangents if not in direct conflict. These groups include the dwellers within the present corporate limits, the suburban fringe of families, and the rural groups

[29] Eisenberg, J. Linwood. Tentative Report of Committee on Local Unit of School Administration. (Apr. 19, 1932.) Mimeographed sheets.

[30] Report of the Commission to Survey Public Education. State of New Jersey. 1928. Pp. 136–142.

[31] Eighty-third Report of the Public Schools of the State of Missouri, 1931–32.

[32] Moehlman, Arthur B. The Community School District. University of Michigan *School of Education. Bulletin*, vol. VII, No. 4, pp. 49–51.

related through social or economic ties directly to the incorporated area. Sampling surveys of certain State areas indicate that these communities are now in actual operation but are directly and distinctly handicapped by arbitrary and artificial legal limits and boundaries. Original minor differences between these groups have been magnified in many instances into long enduring conflicts by professional politicians and through the accentuation of alleged vital differences in interest.

Moehlman has further expressed the belief [23] that in densely populated States it is not possible to use a political unit satisfactorily since the boundaries of these units cut across existing social and economic groups.

(2) Closely related to the foregoing is this question: Should units of attendance differ from units of administration? This is a crucial question. Those favoring the county unit would have administration organized on the county basis but would provide for as many attendance units within the county as conditions made desirable. This is the position taken by the 1935 conference on the reorganization of local units (26, pp. 6, 7). It is difficult to answer a question of this type on the basis of objective data since some of the significant factors involved are psychological and social and, therefore, relatively intangible. Can a rural territory, the size of a county, bring into an integrated unit, for the maintenance of an educational program, the several smaller cities and competing villages with their contiguous farm areas? Can this larger territory devise methods that will encourage the citizen group to take as active an interest in the determination of the larger educational policies and in carrying on the resulting educational program as they would have if school control were in the hands of the community? These questions should, in the judgment of the present writer, be answered in the affirmative in some situations and in the negative in others. This suggests that the answer will depend upon the stage of development of the citizen group and the effectiveness of the leadership employed by school officers. Any answer to these questions should, therefore, be conditional rather than conclusive and final. It is questions such as these that are among the influential ones in determining the so-called "conservative" attitudes of rural people as regards educational reorganization.

(3) How should the extension of the newer educational services to rural people affect the type of unit? Such services are: Adult education, supervision, health services, vocational education, educational and vocational guidance, opportunities for training the various types of handicapped children. If these services are to be provided wholly by the local unit, then obviously it should be con-

[23] A Technique for Determining Natural Communities. *In* National Council on Schoolhouse Construction. Proceedings of Thirteenth Annual Meeting, 1935. Pp. 63-66.

siderably larger than the ordinary attendance area. The alternative would be to have some of these services established directly by the State or provided through an intermediate unit made up of a number of local administrative units.

(4) How far should the system of support for schools in force in the State affect the unit? Cressman (25, p. 92) shows that in Pennsylvania the ability to support education among seven counties studied varies widely, a fact suggesting the need for large units of local administration, unless a State program of equalization is carried through in a comprehensive manner. In New York, for example, the system of apportionment is such that the size of the district has relatively little effect upon the tax burden for education, but does, of course, have considerable effect upon the extensiveness of the program offered.

(5) These several questions point to a fifth problem of considerable significance. If smaller units of administration, such as the attendance area, are established, it will be almost imperative that several such units cooperate if an adequate educational program is to be developed. This conception of organization contemplates, therefore, three levels of control: The State on the one hand; the locality on the other; and between these two an intermediate unit of such size as may be determined. Actually this type of set-up now exists in many of our States, notably Ohio, New York, and Pennsylvania. Its obvious disadvantage is that it creates a dual system of local control, referring certain matters to the board of education for the locality and others to the board of education for the intermediate unit. One's philosophy of government is a dominant factor in the choice made.

The several practices and points of view presented in the preceding paragraphs indicate, in many cases, the recognition of the fact that the type of administrative unit should be determined in the light of the situation to be faced. At least one specific study in this field has recently been made. Rueggsegger,[34] analyzing the situation in Michigan, came to the conclusion that in some sections of the State the township unit is most desirable, in other sections the consolidated district, in still others the county unit.

Surveys preliminary to the establishment of local administrative units.—It is evident that we cannot, at the present time, secure sufficiently objective data regarding these several questions that one conclusion is inevitable. These and similar questions should and will be studied further. In the meantime, specific studies have been made in the several States that attempt to indicate the type of unit

[34] Rueggsegger, Virgil. Are Conditions in Michigan Such as Make it Advisable to Attempt a Reorganization of Rural Schools, Using Only One Type of Administrative Unit as a Basis? Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1936.

that should be established. Generally the participants in these surveys have accepted certain assumptions regarding the type of organization that should be sought. They could not do otherwise; yet, the need for searching more deeply in many cases is evident.

At least two surveys of State-wide or practically State-wide scope have been made. One in Arkansas [35] proposed redistricting the entire State into consolidated districts "conforming to natural economic and community lines." Although the survey staff preferred the county unit system of administration, there was no law at that time by which the county could be so organized, whereas the community or consolidated district could be established by the county board of education. In these proposals, as yet not made effective, the existing 3,946 districts were organized into 307 areas in the 75 counties. In Missouri [36] 107 of the counties were studied by various groups under the direction of a central staff. These studies, uniform in method, present data regarding population trends, school population trends, assessed valuation trends, enrollment per teacher, grade distribution, tax levy, and the like. In each county a reorganization was suggested, the number of districts proposed varying from county to county. It was frequently suggested that a part of one county should more appropriately belong to the contiguous area of another county.

A survey report of Mendocino County, Calif., in 1932, proposed a reorganization of the existing districts into four superintendence areas. In 1931 the California Taxpayers' Association presented a report [37] on the Fresno County Schools in which four plans were suggested, the preferred one setting up two districts, one for the city of Fresno and contiguous territory, the other for the remainder of the county. This report recognizes, as many do not, that sometimes a desired goal may best be reached through an intermediate step. In 1930 Donaldson [38] proposed a reorganization of the 26 districts in Portage County, Ohio, into 8 districts. These districts were determined on the basis of economic and social factors. These studies are cited as illustrative of numerous ones of a similar type that have been made.

The local school units project.—One of the most extensive attempts yet made to survey the local school units situation with a view of determining possibilities for the organization of more satisfactory

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[35] Dawson, Howard A., *and* Little, Harry A. Financial and Administrative Needs of the Public Schools of Arkansas, pt. I. Arkansas State Department of Education, 1930.

[36] See note 31.

[37] Report on the Fresno County Schools. California Taxpayers' Association, Report No. 141.

[38] Donaldson, Grant H. A Study of the Community Interests of Portage County, with a View Toward Larger High School Centers. Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1930. p. 59.

schools, school attendance areas, and local units of school administration is the Local School Units Project of the Office of Education made possible by a grant of funds from the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. Although the Office filed its application for funds for 32 States, the project was finally approved for a grant to permit the inclusion of 10 States, viz: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. The work within the State is coordinated and guided by the project staff of this Office.

In the administration of this project each State, in effect, constitutes a unit of effort with the State superintendent or commissioner of education designating a member of his department for appointment by the Secretary of the Interior as state director of the project. In those States where the need existed the chief State school officer nominated one or more qualified persons for appointment as associate and/or assistant directors. Although this officially appointed personnel assumes direct responsibility for the prosecution of this study, in each instance the project has been considered of such significance that the chief State school officer and staff members of his department have shown a very active interest.

In each of the States a complete study of existing educational conditions relating to and involving the organization of local units of school administration is being made. Basic data covering technical, geographic, economic, and social conditions affecting local school organization have been collected on the basis of forms suggested in Office of Education Circular No. 156, Handbook of Procedure for Planning the Reorganization of Local School Units. The information resulting from this study is being submitted to the Washington Project Office in a series of reports covering the factors and problems involved in a program of organizing more satisfactory schools, school attendance areas, and local administrative units. The steps in the procedure as proposed in the aforementioned handbook are:

1. Collecting, organizing, and analyzing data concerning the present schools and school districts (administrative units). These data include maps and statistical tabulations.
2. Selecting and adopting criteria or standards (minimum and desirable) relating to and revealing the characteristics of satisfactory schools, school attendance areas, and local units of school administration.
3. Planning the reorganization of schools and school districts.
4. Projecting needed school building programs.
5. Planning and estimating the cost of the proposed educational program involving logically needed current expenditures for all services to be provided and required capital outlays.

Great care is being exercised to insure that project activities shall lead to practical outcomes in each of the 10 States. In August 1936 a conference was held in Washington of the chief State school officers, the State directors and their associates, the advisory committee on the local school units project appointed by the United States Commissioner of Education and the Office Project Staff. The work of this conference resulted in five committee reports, making recommendations for completing the work of the project, emphasizing particularly the objectives of the project as related to State programs of education, and suggesting plans and procedures for securing public support and necessary legislation for the improvements of educational conditions in the States.

The States will prepare for counties studied reports (typed or mimeographed) showing existing local organizations and projecting plans for more satisfactory organizations. In accordance with the purposes of the study of local school units, each State will prepare a State report including an evaluation of present school conditions as affected by and related to existing attendance areas and local administrative units and an outline for the development of a program for organizing satisfactory schools, school attendance areas, and local school administrative units to the end that educational opportunities may be provided for every child from the time he should enter school until he is ready to take his place in adult society.

Publications by the Office of Education will coordinate the materials from the 10 States participating in the project and present them in such a form that they may be serviceable to all States as a basis for projecting programs of reorganization. A report on the present status of local school units in the 10 States will set forth plans and procedures, on the basis of the experiences of these States, for collecting, organizing, and analyzing data revealing existing educational conditions. Other reports will present illustrative plans and procedures for planning and projecting more satisfactory organizations. Examples of such efforts will be selected from counties or perhaps, even larger areas, studied in these States.

Similar projects are being prosecuted either on a State-wide or limited basis in Colorado, Idaho, New Jersey, Oregon, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin. Other States that have recognized this problem as demanding careful planning based on a study of present educational conditions are Alabama, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, and West Virginia.

Consolidation.—Regardless of the type of local administrative unit that any State may decide upon, it faces the question of bringing together enough pupils and enough wealth that the educational needs of a particular group may be met. The effort to do this—

varying widely in type—is usually referred to as "consolidation." There has been a slow but steady increase in the number of so-called "consolidated" districts in the United States. In 1919–20, there were 9,752 consolidated schools, according to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education. In 1929–30 this number had increased to 16,232. In 1934 the number was 17,284. Correspondingly, the number of 1-teacher schools declined from 189,227 in 1919–20 to 148,711 in 1929–30, to 138,542 in 1933–34.

It is difficult to determine just what these data regarding the number of consolidated schools mean, because of the great variation in definition of terms. Many are doubtless merely combinations of two or more small schools to provide elementary education only; others are relatively small schools providing training for the entire 12 grades; while still others are large combinations that provide not only the minimum essentials of an elementary and secondary education, but additional facilities representing recent educational developments as well. In some cases, these consolidations represent centralization of several administrative units. In others they represent consolidation of schools or attendance areas.

Considering for a moment the consolidated school as a unit of attendance, the question is at once raised as to how large this unit ought to be and what educational facilities it ought to provide. Ferriss,[39] analyzing the curriculum demands as they affect the size of a school, concludes that: "* * * the six year secondary school of the future, to meet its curriculum demands adequately and with reasonable economy, should have a pupil enrollment of at least 250 to 400." On the basis of a pupil-teacher ratio of about 25 to 1, the minimum enrollment would warrant the employment of 12 teachers and the maximum, 16. With such a teaching force, fairly adequate curricula may be provided. Since, in 1930, 74.4 percent of all high schools had an enrollment of less than 200, the seriousness of the present situation is apparent.

Holmstedt,[40] studying the factors affecting the organization of school attendance units in Indiana, came to the conclusion that:

> * * * a desirable minimum size of high school is approximately 400 pupils enrolled in grades 9 to 12. Below this point costs tend to increase rapidly and curricula become inadequate, particularly where the enrollment drops below 300.

Assuming that 15 miles is a reasonable transportation distance, he shows that 8 miles approaches the maximum radius of an attendance area and a unit of this size would include 200 to 250 square miles.

[39] Ferriss, Emery N. Curriculum Demands on the Secondary Schools. Education, vol. 53, no. 5, pp. 290–297.

[40] Holmstedt, R. W. Factors Affecting the Organization of School Attendance Units. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, vol. X, No. 3.

The relation of such an attendance area to existing political units may be seen in the fact that the area of the median township in Indiana is 36 square miles and of the median county 398 square miles. In the more sparsely populated sections of the State a unit of the size suggested would include approximately 600 elementary and 160 high-school pupils; in the more densely populated sections, 2,800 elementary and 1,300 high-school pupils; in the sections of average density, 1,100 elementary and 460 high-school pupils.

Data such as these will vary according to the situation, hence the importance of having similar studies carried out under several types of representative conditions.

The attempt, begun about 1920, to get objective evidence regarding the educational achievements of 1-teacher and larger rural schools, continues. In 1928 Covert [41] summarized the results of studies on this problem made in eight States. His tabulations show that of 51 comparisons in reading the large rural schools showed superiority in 76.5 percent of the cases; in arithmetic 83 comparisons showed the large rural school's superiority in 87.9 percent of the cases; while in 31 comparisons in spelling, 80.6 percent of the large schools were superior. In 1931, Cole,[42] studying city, town, and rural schools in North Dakota, came to the conclusion that "from whatever point of view we study the data, we are forced to conclude that the educational accomplishment in our rural schools is very poor." In 1929 Wilson and Ashbaugh [43] show that the mean achievement scores in the great majority of cases favored the consolidated school, although the differences were slight. Blanton,[44] in 1936, made a comprehensive investigation of the child in the 1-teacher school in Texas and compared these findings with those of pupils in larger schools. The investigation shows that the rural pupils are definitely inferior to the urban pupils in ability, in school achievement, and in socio-economic and physical status. Van Wagenen [45] found, in studying Minnesota schools, that usually achievement is less as one goes from the large system to the smaller and from the 9-month to the 8-month rural school. In general, these comparisons have been made on the basis of the achievement of pupils in small and large schools as measured by the standard tests. Most of the studies attempt to equate

[41] Covert, Timon. Educational Achievements of 1-Teacher and Larger Rural Schools. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 15.) p. 19.

[42] Cole, Robert D. Educational Achievement in North Dakota City, Town, and Rural Schools. Departmental Bulletin of the University of North Dakota, vol. XV, No. 2. p. 37.

[43] Wilson, W. K., *and* Ashbaugh, E. J. Achievement in Rural and Consolidated Schools. Educational Research Bulletin, Nov. 6, 1929, pp. 358–363.

[44] Blanton, Annie W. The Child of the Texas 1-Teacher School. University of Texas Bulletin No. 3613.

[45] Van Wagenen, M. J. Comparative Pupil Achievement in Rural, Town, and City Schools. University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

such factors as length of term, training of the teacher, ability of the pupil, and the like. The problem is complicated, and wholly reliable techniques have probably not yet been established. The fact that the small schools do, in an appreciable number of cases, show superiority to the large schools indicates that in some aspects of an effective program the small school is not inherently inferior and that the direction of intelligent effort would undoubtedly lead to a very great improvement in its achievements. In at least one factor, the breadth of the curriculum offerings, the very small school clearly has an inherent limitation.

The economy aspect of larger school units has naturally attracted the attention of investigators. O'Brien,[46] analyzing the situation in Kansas in 1934, stated that, if the enrollment in 1-teacher schools could be raised to 30 pupils, approximately half of those schools in the State could be discontinued. Centralized elementary schools, with an average enrollment of 35 per teacher, would save the State $4,250,000, while a combination of small high-school districts to give an average enrollment per teacher of 30 pupils would save $2,100,000. Gaumnitz[47] presents data from a number of States showing the very small enrollment in some of the small schools and indicates the high per capita cost in them. Little,[48] in 1934, after a study of 223 counties, presents formulas for estimating the percentage of original cost of schools which might be saved through consolidation.

Among the numerous local surveys of attendance units and consolidation may be mentioned: Franklin County, Ky.;[49] Mercer County, W. Va.;[50] Marysville, Ohio;[51] Washington Parish, La.;[52] Milton, Wis.[53]

Recent legislation shows a tendency to deal with certain aspects of the consolidation problem. Iowa prohibited the establishment of any new school district with a territory of less than four sections of land. Oregon and Illinois provided that two or more union high-school districts might consolidate. Ohio passed legislation making it the duty of the county board of education, with the aid of the State di-

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[46] O'Brien, F. P. Economies Possible in Larger School Units. Kansas Studies in Education, vol. II, No. 3.

[47] Gaumnitz, W. H. Economies Through the Elimination of Very Small Schools. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1934, No. 3.)

[48] Little, Harry A. Potential Economies in the Reorganization of Local School Attendance Units. Contributions to Education, No. 628, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[49] A Study of School Attendance Areas in Franklin County, Ky. Educational Bulletin, Department of Education, IV, No. 6.

[50] Cavins, L. V. An Administrative Survey of the Public Schools of Mercer County, W. Va. West Virginia State Department of Education, 1932.

[51] Blttikofer, Frederik G. A Super-Consolidation of High Schools, Marysville and Vicinity. Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1929.

[52] Herrington, J. N. The Economic and Social Value of Consolidation of High Schools in Washington Parish. Master's thesis, Louisiana State University.

[53] Dorr, Charles H. A Study of the Advisability of Consolidation as Applied to a Local Situation. Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin.

rector of education, to make a survey of the county each year and to prepare plans to the end of developing a more effective organization of the various districts. California provided that every elementary-school district and every high-school district having coterminous boundaries and under the jurisdiction of governing boards having identical personnel, shall be merged into unified districts under the direction of one board of education.

The National Survey of Secondary Education estimated that there were in 1929–30, about 39 percent of the rural children 14 to 17 years of age attending high school as compared with 58 percent of urban children. These data show the importance of any measure that will make high schools available to those who live in the rural areas. In addition to the consolidated school, provision is made in most States for the payment of tuition for those who must attend school outside their home districts. Among the States that have, during the last few years, passed legislation affecting this matter are: North Dakota, in which tuition of nonresident high-school pupils is paid from the State equalization fund rather than by the pupil's home district; Texas, which permits the payment of this charge from the rural-aid fund if the home district fails to pay or is unable to do so; and Wisconsin, which authorized the payment of high-school tuition to a high school of another State when such school is at least 1½ miles nearer the pupil's home than a Wisconsin high school. North Dakota made provision for a complete high-school education by correspondence free of charge, while South Dakota authorized a high-school district to establish dormitories for non-resident high-school pupils in sparsely settled areas. Florida, Maine, Michigan, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Tennessee are among States that have made provision for the education of the children of deceased veterans of the World War.

A weakness of consolidations as commonly developed is that they have been effected in localities where the topography, density of population, and wealth gave promise of permitting the development of a successful school with little, sometimes no control over the size of the consolidated district or the particular territory to be included in it. As was to be expected therefore, there has been a tendency to bring together areas in which the consolidation could be effected with minimum cost, neglecting those children who lived in territory contiguous, but of little wealth, where their inclusion would have produced little additional income and serious educational responsibilities. This type of "Gerrymandering" is still possible in most States although there has been some recognition of the responsibility for controlling the development of such units.

The central rural-school district.—An excellent illustration of State control in the development of such rural-school units may be seen in the central rural-school district of New York. Creation of districts of this type, originally authorized in 1914, because of changes in the law and appropriations for additional State funds, has been markedly stimulated since 1925. The underlying conception in forming central districts is that the area brought together may develop into an integrated school unit, and attention is given to social and economic factors that make for the development of the community under rural conditions. The boundaries of such districts must be approved by the commissioner of education. Probably the greatest stimulus to the creation of these new districts in New York has been the relatively liberal State aid, including not only the equalization quota granted a union free school district in the State but the State aid to which the original districts were entitled also. In addition, the State pays one-half the cost of transportation and one-fourth the cost of a new building when the plans have been approved by the commissioner of education.

Since 1925, 185 central rural-school districts have been established in New York State, which include territory formerly included in 1,967 districts. In the beginning, centralizations were relatively small. The 17 districts established in 1925–26 included an average of 4.8 original districts per unit; in 1930–31, the 56 central districts had an average of 12.8 original districts; while, in 1935–36, 24 central districts had an average of 14.3.[54] Some of these central districts include relatively large areas, a few running as high as 25 to 35 original districts.

One characteristic of the New York central district is that the first six grades must be continued in the schools existing at the time of the formation of the central district unless voters determine otherwise. While the great majority of these smaller schools have been given up, there were still operating in central districts in 1935–36, 551 1-teacher, 47 2-teacher, and 42 larger elementary schools. The New York central rural-school district does not always represent an attendance area, except for high-school purposes. The territory is, however, a unit so far as administration is concerned, having its own board of education and principal.

Transportation.—In the United States 350,100 pupils were, in 1919–20, transported at a cost of $7,960,966. In 1927–28, these figures had been increased to 1,250,570 pupils, transported at a cost of $39,952,502. There appear to be no national data as to the percentage of school costs going into transportation, but illustrations

[54] Data supplied by Ray P. Snyder, Director of the Division of Rural Education, New York State Department of Education.

from a few States will be useful. A study of 105 consolidations in various parts of the country in 1930 shows that a median of 14 percent of the income was spent for transportation.[55] In 1930, the median percentage expended for transportation in California was 9.[56] In 11 Virginia counties [57] 8.2 percent was so expended.

These percentages are sufficiently high to indicate that transportation is rapidly becoming a major item in the cost of maintaining schools in the rural areas. It therefore becomes imperative that these costs be carefully scrutinized to see wherein savings may be made. The first step in studying such costs is to have an adequate system of accounting for the several items of expenditures connected with transportation. According to the uniform system of accounting now generally used throughout the country, transportation is given as one item only in the general category "auxiliary agencies." These general figures of cost for transportation need to be segregated. Within the last 2 years, New York State has made a significant step in this direction. In the recommended uniform accounting system, one entire sheet is devoted to transportation, including such items as: Insurance cost for public liability, for property damage, for fire and theft, and for collision; capital payments on district-owned buses; salaries of drivers; such supplies as gas, oil, and tires; repairs; upkeep; and storage. Johns, after studying this problem, suggests a more detailed analysis.[58] While it is easy to elaborate these classifications to such a degree that they become an undue clerical burden, it is evident that districts and States must become more interested in this problem.

Unit costs of various kinds have been computed in an attempt to get a measure of the reasonableness of this item of expenditure. There has been little uniformity as to the type of unit cost computed and as to the method of computing it. Thus we find such unit costs as: The bus per year, month, or day; the pupil per year, month, or day; the bus per mile; and the pupil per mile. These unit costs have limited validity since transportation costs are influenced by numerous factors. For example, because such fixed charges as insurance, storage, and interest go on regardless of whether a bus travels 10 miles or 60 miles per day, the rate per pupil declines rapidly as the length of the haul increases. This problem has, during the last few years, challenged several investigators in various

[55] Covert, Timon. Rural School Consolidation. (U. S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 6.) p. 34.

[56] Evans, Frank O. Factors Affecting the Cost of School Transportation in California. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1930, No. 29.) p. 6.

[57] Thorpe, H. Wilson. A Study of School Transportation in Five Counties of Virginia. Master's thesis, University of Virginia, 1933. p. 156.

[58] Johns, R. L. State and Local Administration of School Transportation. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University. (Teachers College, Contributions to Education No. 30.) p. 114.

parts of the country; for example, California,[59] North Carolina,[60] Wyoming,[61] New Mexico,[62] Arkansas,[63] and South Carolina.[64] In each of these studies an attempt has been made to get at those factors that are most closely related to costs. The following table makes an interesting comparison of the various factors considered in these several studies:

Factor	Does factor affect cost as shown by data from a study made in [1]—				
	Arkansas	California	North Carolina	South Carolina	Wyoming
1	2	3	4	5	6
Number pupils transported	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.
Type of road	No	Yes	Yes		
Length of bus route	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes.
Number of routes per bus	Yes				
Number of round trips per day	Yes				
Number of days operated	Yes				
Seating capacity of bus	No	Yes			
Ownership of bus	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.
Make of bus	No		Yes		
Cost (new) of bus	Yes	Yes			
Age of bus driver	Yes				Yes.
Occupation of bus driver	Yes	Yes			Yes.
Topography of district	No	Yes			
Size of district	No	No			
Efficiency of superintendent	No				
Current expense of school	No				
Purchase of supplies	No				
Years transportation furnished	No				
Economic conditions	Yes				

[1] Roberts, Roy W. Estimating the Cost of Pupil Transportation in Arkansas. Doctor's thesis, Cornell University, 1934. P. 147.

The differences in these findings may be attributed to different techniques employed in the investigations, or to the varying influence of a particular factor among the States studied. Although further research is needed, tentative generalizations appear warranted, namely, that three factors are closely related to costs—the number of pupils transported, the length of the bus route, and the ownership of the bus. In each of these studies the investigator has proposed a formula or has given a set of classified costs that enable the school administrator to determine approximately what costs would be reasonable under given conditions.

To determine "ideal" standards for transportation practices is obviously difficult. Such matters as length of haul, the plan of

[59] See note 40, Evans.

[60] Noble, M. C. S. Public School Transportation in North Carolina, 1930–31. Publication No. 172, North Carolina State Department of Education.

[61] Current Transportation Practices in Wyoming. State Department of Education Publication, 1931.

[62] Mullins, R. J., *and* Harmon, Ray L. Delivered by Bus. Nation's Schools, 16 : 47–49.

[63] Roberts, Roy W. Estimating the Cost of Pupil Transportation in Arkansas. Doctor's Thesis, Cornell University, 1934.

[64] Fulmer, H. L. A Statistical Study of School Transportation in South Carolina. Monograph, State Department of Education, 1931.

the transportation route, the type and size of the vehicle, and the provisions for safety may well differ according to the situation to be dealt with. For example, 1 hour on the road each way may be too high as a standard for general practice but may be defensible when essential to get the pupils to a school with adequate facilities. Ideal standards will be arrived at in part as we study standards of practice. The last several years have seen an increasing interest in material of this sort. For example, in New York, Robinson[65] gives for the central districts central tendencies regarding such practices as type of conveyance, length of route, arrangements regarding congregating places along the route, capacity of bus, time on road, number of stops per route, policy of waiting for children, seating arrangement, and type of disciplinary control. Such standards of practice, when known for representative situations, are useful to school officers in checking their own practices.

Interest in safety devices, including specifications for buses, has definitely increased. New York State has recently issued a revised list of such specifications. Callon,[66] in 1930, developed a score card for bus materials and type of construction.

There has also been an increased interest in the keeping of adequate records of matters other than costs. Some States, like Arkansas and New York, have developed a number of such forms. Fox,[67] in 1933, proposed a series of eight forms dealing with the bus driver's monthly report, the monthly summary of bus operations and repairs, the annual summary of bus operations and repairs, a permanent chassis and body record, a permanent tire service record, a permanent battery service record, a garage invoice, and a record of special trips with school buses.

Without attempting to present all of even the significant legislation in transportation during the last few years, the following should be noted. New Mexico authorized boards of education, with the approval of the State board of education, to enter into contract for the transportation of pupils for a period not to exceed 4 years. South Carolina required operators of school busses be of the same race as the pupils they transport. Connecticut specified that any town in which a State trade school is not maintained shall provide transportation to any pupil 14 to 21 who attends a State trade school in another town. Nebraska prohibited the giving of gratuities to nonresident pupils residing nearer another school offering a high-

[65] Robinson, James R. A Study of Some Transportation Practices of the Central Rural School Districts of New York State, 1932–33. Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1935.

[66] Callon, Albert M. A Score Card and Typical Standards for School Bus Bodies. Master's thesis, University of Cincinnati, 1930.

[67] Fox, C. D. A Cumulative System of Accounting for School Bus Transportation. Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1933.

school course. Florida and Vermont passed legislation requiring that insurance be carried on pupils transported, while Indiana, Nevada, New Hampshire, and North Carolina were among those legislating on matters of increased safety in transportation.

The rural superintendency.—The county superintendency is an office still in evolution. Newsom [68] gives us a picture of this development down to 1930. His study deals with such matters as the date when the office was first created in a State, the length of term, provision for assistants, allowance for expenses, powers and duties, qualifications, salaries, and methods of selection. He shows, for example, that from 1880, when 20 States had citizenship only as an absolute requirement, the number of such States had been reduced to 13 by 1905 and to 5 by 1930. In 1880 no State specifically required the county superintendent to be a college or a normal school graduate. At present several States, including Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Utah, and West Virginia, have such a requirement for superintendents entering the service, while in other States the State department has been given authority to fix the qualifications of the office. While graduate work in a college or university is not generally a legal requirement, several States report that many county superintendents in service have done and are doing graduate study. The general trend as to method of selection has been in the direction of appointment as contrasted with popular election, although the progress has been slow.

Butterworth [69] made a study of the status of county superintendents as of 1927–28. His data, covering 60 percent of all such officers in the country, showed the situation to be as follows: 71 percent were men; the median age at time of appointment was 44.8 years; the median educational experience was 19.9 years, of which 9.4 years had been devoted to teaching in grades 1 to 12; 18 percent had had no experience in grades 1 to 6, and 6 percent none in grades 7 to 12; the total years of experience as county superintendent was 7 years, and as county superintendent continuously, 5.4 years; the median number of years of training above the elementary school was 7.8 years, 50 percent of the number having had between 6.1 and 8.6 years of training; 57 percent held no degree, while 33 had a bachelor's degree, 9 a master's, and 1 a doctor's; the median salary was $2,312, 50 percent having between $1,827 and $2,931. On the average, these superintendents were supervising 55 buildings, of which 38 were 1-teacher buildings. They had supervision over 145 teachers, but

[68] Newsom, N. William. The Legal Status of the County Superintendent. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 7.)

[69] Butterworth, Julian E. The County Superintendent in the United States. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 6.)

1,830 of them had only 812 supervisory assistants, 1,410 having none. Eight hundred and two of 1,860 had no stenographic assistance. In 25 of the States, the county superintendent was still chosen through popular election. A summary of certain of these data show:

> * * * that, taking the States as a group, appointment by any method gives a larger percentage of superintendents who are men, a longer period of training above the elementary school, a longer administrative experience, a longer experience as county superintendent, a larger salary, a larger percentage who were holding an administrative position when first elected as county superintendent, and a somewhat smaller percentage who were holding a non-educational position when first selected as county superintendent.

The salary situation was complicated, partly because in so many States there was no responsible board of education to evaluate a superintendent's work and reward him accordingly, and partly because numerous legal limitations made the financial rewards of the office frequently an arbitrary matter.

There appear to be no data that give a clear picture regarding this office at the present time. However, certain legislation has been passed that for the most part looks toward an improvement in the status of this office. South Dakota has recently provided that when a county superintendent has 50 or more teachers, an office deputy may be appointed, and when there are 100 or more teachers a field deputy may be appointed. North Carolina requires that a county superintendent be a graduate of a 4-year standard college and have 3 years' successful teaching experience. Michigan has increased the minimum teaching experience required from 12 to 27 months and the length of training from graduation from a normal school or college of at least 3 years in length to the holding of a bachelor's degree. Vermont has provided that the election of union superintendents by local boards shall be subject to approval by the commissioner of education and has increased the minimum salary from $1,600 to $2,000. South Dakota has proposed a constitutional amendment to remove the term limitation from this office and to provide for the election of the superintendent on a nonpolitical ballot. In Arkansas a definitely backward movement appears to have taken place. The county superintendency that had paid a minimum of $1,500 was in 1935 discontinued. At the same time the county board of education was discontinued, and the functions of this board were transferred to the county courts. In place of the county superintendent, part-time officers with nominal duties, known as county examiners of schools, are provided. They must be engaged as teachers and are selected by a ballot of teachers in the county. The person so selected must hold a professional teacher's certificate or the equivalent. His salary may not exceed $600.

Section IV. Some Newer Practices In Education Outside of Cities

During a period of serious economic depression it is to be expected that progressive movements in education should lag, especially in areas in which even in more prosperous years many school facilities generally considered essential were inadequate. Naturally, then, newer movements and practices in education made relatively little headway during the period and in the localities with which this chapter is concerned. In general, school officials found it difficult to avoid slipping backward; and progressive practices, except those growing out of the depression itself or intended to mitigate somewhat the effects of severe retrenchments, were postponed in the hope of more favorable conditions. Probably in part at least because of depression conditions, the welfare of rural youth in common with all youth received renewed attention. One result, namely, increase in high-school attendance, is considered elsewhere in this chapter. Adult education was undoubtedly stimulated during the period through Federal contributions.

The movement toward State funds, reorganization of administrative units as well as the availability of Federal funds, has affected the attitude toward provision of school buildings in sparsely settled areas to a considerable degree during the period, and the growing attention which schools in general are giving to problems concerned with the education of exceptional children shows signs of affecting somewhat, though so far slightly, the welfare of children in sparsely settled areas. Certain changes in the school building situation, in one phase of adult education, and in the attitude toward the education of exceptional children in rural and other sparsely settled sections seem worthy of note in this section.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS[10]

Construction of new rural school buildings and general improvement and repair and maintenance of the rural school plant have been greatly influenced during the last few years by (1) educational readjustment in school organization and administration, and (2) by changes in financial support of the public school.

The educational readjustments started some years ago with the movement toward consolidation of local school units to increase the size of the rural school and to enable rural communities to accept responsibility for providing rural children with a minimum 12-year school program similar to that long accepted by cities. Although the movement for organization of new consolidated school districts

[10] Prepared with the cooperation of W. K. Wilson, Supervisor, Division of Buildings and Grounds; State Department of Education of New York.

has about run its course in several States, there is a very definite tendency for small rural districts to disorganize and become a part of an already established larger unit with a well-organized school either for elementary or high-school work or both. Since good roads and rapid, safe transportation increase the possibilities for the expansion of this movement, it seems unwise to thoughtful voters to place an indebtedness upon themselves for the construction of a new school building for which the demand may be temporary only. Just how extensive this movement will be in eliminating the need for continuing present or providing new small rural school buildings is uncertain. However, many small schools are so located in respect to their physical environment that it seems safe to predict that their use will be extended for many years. The sooner that needed educational readjustments are made the sooner these small schools can provide children with buildings meeting recognized minimum standards, which in most instances will mean new or remodeled school buildings.

The depression brought about a condition such that taxpayers generally demanded a reduction in assessed property valuations for taxing purposes and a corresponding reduction in ad valorem taxes. Financial ability of the local school administrative units were such that they could not provide current operating expenses, to say nothing of providing new buildings or needed repair and satisfactory maintenance of present buildings. In many States there was a substantial increase in appropriations of State funds to support education and to equalize educational opportunities. In administering such financial assistance the States began to examine into the unit costs of the small schools and in many instances placed a penalty on the continuance of the small school or a premium on its attachment to a larger unit when a change could be effectively accomplished. This resulted in so much uncertainty concerned with retention of many small schools that buildings were not provided even in districts that could finance them with the State's assistance in operating costs. However, many hundreds of school districts lacked the financial ability to provide adequate buildings even when the State assumed a large share of the current costs. In order to overcome this handicap to the provision of better rural school buildings, Alabama has included capital outlay expenditures as a part of its State equalization program.

By far the larger majority of school building projects of the last 3 years have been stimulated by availability of Federal funds. State administrators of such funds have cooperated with State departments of education in locating the school building projects according to educational needs, limited of course by the availability of relief labor.

Federal funds have also been used in many States in making studies of present school building needs and in anticipating future needs.

Complete Nation-wide surveys of the school building situation in rural communities of recent date are not available. Dr. S. L. Smith of the Julius Rosenwald Fund compiled a summary of State reports on estimated needs for school-plant rehabilitation for the Nation as a whole in 1934. He later reviewed progress in schoolhouse construction for the period 1930–35. He showed that responsibility for increase during the latter part of this period was due largely to contributions of Federal funds to schoolhouse construction in urban as well as rural situations. Both of these studies are reported in the proceedings of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, which devotes several sections to the rural school building situation, as well as a number of rather extensive State-wide studies.

Several important State-wide school building surveys concerned wholly or in part with conditions in sparsely settled areas have recently been made, mostly by State departments of education, or with their cooperation. Some of these surveys estimate the building needs in terms of the present local organizations. Others consider feasibility and cost of reorganization with needed transportation and propose a plan of reorganization of local school units upon which they base an estimate of school building needs for the State. Mississippi, Alabama, and Virginia, which are typical of this latter and larger group, have placed emphasis upon planning a long-time school building program in terms of planned progress in the reorganization of local school units and the life expectancy of school buildings already constructed. California is typical of State-wide studies made of the adequacy of existing school buildings in terms of the present plan of organization. This does not imply, however, that States which have made studies of this kind expect to stop without projecting a school building program based upon needed reorganization.

Some State-wide studies of school buildings have been for purposes other than estimating total financial needs in capital outlay. Professor Noffsinger of the School of Education of Indiana University made a study of school building needs in Indiana for the purpose of determining the possibility of further worth-while consolidation in this State. The study was concerned with attendance centers and with the development of indices for the determination of bases for the distribution of grants from State funds for the erection of school buildings.

In 1933 Dr. W. K. Wilson, of the New York State department of education, completed a study developing techniques for planning small high schools which is now the basis of planning for such school buildings which come under the approval of the commissioner of

education of New York. Its basic principle is that school buildings exist for the purpose of housing groups of children and carrying on a definite education program. Therefore, all educational planning must start with a definite enrollment figure and a well-defined program of education. Factors of growth, feasibility, and maximum utilization of the plant are all considered.

A few important studies have been made on existing school buildings in rural communities and existing and desirable minimum standards for rural school buildings. S. A. Chalmers made a study concerned with small rural schoolhouses in 1931. Dr. Haskell Pruett, in 1933, made a study of school-plant requirements for standardized elementary and accredited high schools in which much emphasis was placed upon the lack of well-defined standards for rural elementary schools. Dr. T. C. Holy and others, in a survey of education in West Virginia, made detailed investigation of the rural-school buildings in that State. However, there have been few research studies of significance carried on in the field of school buildings, as evidenced by the same author in 1935 in a review of educational research. Dr. Holy pointed out the extreme dearth of research in school building planning and discussed wisely the need for such research on a wide scale.

Such progress as has been made during and since the depression concerned with school buildings and school facilities in rural communities seems to be definitely in two directions. The first trend is that of surveying existing facilities and needs on a State-wide or region-wide scale, as a basis for the formulation of an organized building program for the State or region concerned. This trend marks a departure from the opportunistic small community planning of school buildings which adheres closely to established district boundaries without due regard to larger areas which could be served with economy and efficiency. The second trend is toward actual formulation of long-time building programs based on conditions disclosed by the surveys referred to for large areas either directly adapted to reorganized administrative units, where reorganization seems desirable, or flexible enough to permit such adaptation later. In short, the trend is toward the adoption of plans for administrative and attendance units; a school program suited to the needs of such units, and as a final step, planning of a building program adopted to the educational needs of the children involved.

FORUMS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES[71]

During the past year a Nation-wide project in adult education, organized especially for the promotion of a wider knowledge of

[71] Prepared by Chester Williams, Assistant Administrator, Public Forums Project, Office of Education.

civic affairs on the part of citizens, has been under way under the direction of the United States Office of Education.

The plan, known as the Forum plan, contemplates group discussion of civic problems—local, national, and international—under trained leadership, and with an organization designed to promote complete freedom of discussion on the part of all members of the group.

For a number of years experimentation in this form of adult education has been under way—one particularly successful experiment in Des Moines, Iowa. The project referred to here is an extension of the plan worked out there on a Nation-wide scale, financed by funds allotted to the Office of Education from the Works Progress Administration.

In order that the project be representative, democratic, and educational, all groups so far established are supervised by the superintendents of schools. Conferences were called by the United States Commissioner of Education before any of the local forum projects were initiated. The conferees were representative of all sections of the United States and included, beside forum and adult educational leaders, school superintendents, educators, and interested citizens. Plans for the selection of centers for the location of forums for suitable topics, competent leaders, and other essential details were discussed.

From the beginning the interests and needs of rural people and plans for extending the proposed services into rural communities were carefully considered. It is, of course, recognized that public forums in general sponsored by varying types of groups, public and private, are now available in a greater degree and can more readily be made available to people in metropolitan centers than to rural groups. Reasons for this are obviously due to scattered population, inaccessibility of available centers, and consequent difficulty of securing forum speakers at a reasonable cost when trained leadership is necessary or desirable.

On the other hand, surveys of forums of all types now under way show that there is more of the small group type of discussion going on among farmers and rural groups generally than is commonly believed possible. It is also true that adult education programs of farm organizations for both men and women, and of the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, have grown in number during recent years and that they are in an increasing degree adopting group discussion methods.

Because of the limitations and difficulties as well as the encouraging factors indicated, the forum demonstration program of the Office of Education has attempted both to provide forum facilities for rural people and to point some directions in meeting the problems involved.

in conducting them. It is the hypothesis of this program that a certain minimum population is necessary in order to procure and justify the administration of an adult civic education program. The projects have, therefore, been established in communities both rural and urban having populations of 100,000 or more. A few of these projects have been placed within city limits, others have included entire counties, the rural and urban populations, while still others have included two or more counties. One of the projects located in North Carolina will serve an area including 7 counties with no urban center larger than 10,000 population. This center includes 7 county school districts and 5 urban school districts. This is called a forum district. It represents a pattern of possible organization for meeting the needs of rural people in the field of public discussion. This particular project will conduct 20 to 24 forum meetings per week in different places in the 7 counties, thus enabling the people in all parts of the area to participate in meetings near their homes. The meetings will be held in schoolhouses, grange halls, and other convenient meeting places. It is considered both practical and essential that forums should make available for rural people leadership as competent and well trained as is now available to people in large cities. This is made possible by employing leaders on a monthly basis who follow a regular schedule of meetings at the rate of five or six per week in as many different parts of the forum district.

Of the forums now under way those which are located and conducted in a manner designed to promote accessibility to rural people and now enrolling them in comparatively large numbers are: The project under way in three counties in West Virginia and under the direction of the county superintendent of Monongalia County; the one in Chattanooga, including Hamilton County, Tenn., directed by the county superintendent of schools of that county; the one in Colorado Springs, Colo., the district including three counties under the direction of the city superintendent of schools of Colorado Springs; and the North Carolina project, which includes seven counties.

PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN[72]

It is commonly known that there is a large number of children in the schools of the country whose marked physical, mental, or emotional deviation from normal requires a radical adjustment of the educational program. There is no reason to believe that the ratio of such children to the total school population is any lower in rural districts than in cities. Yet special facilities designed to meet their

[72] Prepared by Elise Martens, senior specialist in the education of exceptional children, Office of Education.

needs are almost exclusively restricted to city school systems. Even from some of the States in which the greatest progress has been made for the education of exceptional children comes the confession in one form or another that there is "no organization for special education of any kind in the rural communities."

Difficulties involved.—Obviously there are serious difficulties which hinder effective programs for children of this type living in rural districts. Pupils are widely scattered and isolated from the centers of population and highly developed educational opportunities. There are too few in any one group of exceptional children to make feasible the organization of a particular type of special class for them. In a given district there may be one crippled child, a deaf or a hard-of-hearing child, one or two mentally retarded children, a stammerer, one who has defective vision, and an especially brilliant pupil. A few who suffer from an extreme handicap may not be attending school at all but kept at home with no constructive plans for their education. What must be done is to find some way through which each of these will be given the type of special educational service that he needs in the light of his own peculiar condition.

State organization.—Regardless of the lack of progress in this direction that characterizes the rural situation, there are definite possibilities for meeting the problems involved, certain of which have already been explored. Of first importance is the need of recognition of the problem by the State and of some type of organization within the State department of public instruction which shall have as its objective the development of a State-wide program of special education for exceptional children. In each of 13 States a division now exists which carries such a responsibility, namely, in California, Connecticut, Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. Three of them have been established since 1928. Through the services rendered by these divisions, some beginnings have been made in reaching rural children. In most cases this has been done, not through bringing special classes to the rural communities but through bringing handicapped children to the communities in which special schools or classes are functioning. Those who are blind or profoundly deaf are usually sent to State residential schools established for these groups; so also those who are feebleminded. But there are many children not needing the services of residential schools, but still sufficiently handicapped to require some special educational adjustment. These are the ones who should be, and in a few cases are, served through special day schools or classes in nearby districts or through special adjustment in their own schools.

From a State supervisor of special education in Wisconsin, for example, comes the statement that "the children (in rural communities) who are so hard-of-hearing that they are unable successfully to pursue their education in the regular public school are either transported or boarded, and attend our special classes for the hard-of-hearing. We are making a beginning in special education for the conservation of vision under a similar organization." Crippled children are likewise brought to centers specially equipped to serve them in an educational way. The same general plan is used in Ohio, the State paying the expense of transportation and boarding homes as well as the excess cost of the special educational program.

Example of a State program for crippled children.—A more detailed statement of the educational provisions made for crippled children in the State of Wisconsin is given below as an example of a comprehensive State program for this group of handicapped children. The program is administered and supervised through the crippled children division of the State department of public instruction. All phases of it receive State aid made available by appropriation of the State legislature. The following are the elements included [78] in the program, which has had its major development since the year 1927:

1. *Orthopedic schools in which academic instruction is carried on in conjunction with physical therapy.*—There are 10 of these centers in the State, established for crippled children who require therapeutic treatment. The financial responsibility for them is a joint one, in that the city, village, or township having children enrolled in an orthopedic school is responsible for the normal cost of education, which is covered by tuition charges, while the State is responsible for paying the excess cost of conducting the school.

2. *Transportation to the orthopedic schools of all pupils, including nonresident children who live near enough to permit daily transportation.*

3. *Maintenance of nonresident crippled children if their place of residence is too far removed from an orthopedic school to permit daily transportation.*—Boarding homes are found for these in the vicinity of the school.

4. *Transportation of crippled children attending a regular local school.*—This provision is intended primarily for those crippled children who do not need physical therapy but who can with proper adjustments attend the local school for all children.

5. *Maintenance in boarding homes of crippled high-school students living in rural communities.*—This makes possible the high-school attendance of crippled children who live in rural districts 8 or 10 miles from the nearest high school and whose parents are financially unable to meet the cost.

6. *Academic instruction in orthopedic hospitals, of which there are 3 in the State serving children from every section.*

[78] Taken from recent report by the Director, Crippled Children Division, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wis.

Itinerant teachers.—Another means of reaching certain types of handicapped children in rural communities which has been adopted by some State divisions of special education is that of using the services of an itinerant teacher. Itinerant speech correction or lip-reading teachers can bring material help to stuttering and slightly hard-of-hearing children, particularly if teachers in the home schools cooperate and follow up the work done by the specialists. So also the homebound crippled child, who is unable to go to school at all, can reap unbounded benefit and joy from the periodic visits of an itinerant teacher. This plan has been extensively developed in Massachusetts under State supervision and with gratifying results. A cooperative relationship between the State and the local district in providing such services has appeared to be the logical and the most helpful arrangement. Teaching at home, however, even at its best, deprives the child of the opportunities for social contacts and adaptations which he enjoys through school attendance. It is to this extent limited in its educational value, and is regarded by some specialists as being the least desirable method to be used with handicapped children.

Responsibility of regular teachers.—Both State and local districts, however, must go further. Not only are the services of specially trained teachers valuable in special class centers or in an itinerant capacity, but the regular teachers in the rural schools can be helped to make certain adjustments as they are needed for individual children. Segregation in a special school or class in many instances is neither necessary nor advisable. Every teacher can with the proper guidance learn to use the needed equipment and apply the principles of sight conservation to her classroom, particularly with reference to pupils who suffer from impaired vision. Every teacher can learn to apply first aid to the hard-of-hearing child through arrangements of seating and lighting and through the encouragement of distinct articulation on the part of all. An automobile and a special seat or a wheel chair may be all that is needed in order to give a crippled child the advantages of school attendance. Curriculum adjustment for retarded and for gifted children can be effectively handled as individual problems in classroom organization. With the assistance and cooperation of specialists working from the State or the county office, manifold situations of this kind can be met in rural districts that have as yet not been touched.

The consolidated school.—With all of these approaches to the education of exceptional children in rural communities, one must not forget the advantages of the consolidated school and its accompanying possibilities for the organization of special education. With its

larger enrollment and with transportation furnished, such a school is the logical center for the establishment of special "opportunity" classes for partially seeing children, for the hard-of-hearing and speech-defectives, for retarded children, for crippled children, or for any other types, provided they need the segregated attention. Here special equipment can be centralized, specialized teaching methods can be made available, and handicapped children will profit from the closer association with other children and the better mutual understanding of one another's problems.

Thus in the complete picture of special education that is to serve rural children, consolidated schools and special centers, day schools, and residential schools, itinerant teachers and regular teachers, transportation and maintenance, all have a place. None of them can adequately serve isolated communities unless the State, through its department of public instruction, accepts the responsibility for enacting needed legislation, giving financial assistance, and providing supervisory service in keeping with the needs of local districts. It is reported from Wisconsin that the "whole legislative program for care of crippled children was based and has been developed with the idea of equalizing the opportunities for children of both rural and urban communities." This is an objective worthy of emulation. It is to be hoped that it may become true not only of the education of crippled children but of every group of the handicapped—not only of Wisconsin, but of every State in the Union. Insofar as it becomes a reality in any State, to that extent the State will have achieved distinctive progress in rural education.